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ABSTRACT

Papers included in this volume from a conference on language teaching include the following: "The Symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency: Challenges to the Profession" (Albert Valdman); "Conversion to a Proficiency Oriented Curriculum at the University Level" (Carmen Villegas Rogers, William H. Heflin, John Romeiser); "Dispelling Students' Fears and Misconceptions about Foreign Language Study: The Foreign Language Anxiety Workshop at the Defense Language Institute" (Christine M. Campbell, Jose Ortiz); "A Sequential Approach to Teaching and Testing the Listening and Speaking Skills" (Barbara Gonzalez Pino); "Foreign Language Reading: Linguistic, Cognitive, and Affective Factors Which Influence Comprehension" (Richard G. Kern); "Writing Across the (Foreign Language) Curriculum" (Hannelore Jarausch, Clare Tufts); "Learning Via the Socratic Method: The Use of the Concept Attainment Model in Foreign Language Classes" (Marie-Cecile Louvet); "The Newspaper and the Five Skills" (Donna Reseigh Long, Linda L. Harlow); "Teachers Working with Teachers: Becoming Proficient with Proficiency" (June K. Phillips, Eileen W. Glisan); "Technoscientific French for Teachers" (Brigitte D. Muller); "Going International in the Business World: A Special Purpose Course in Spanish" (Ronald Carl Cere); and "The Videocassette Challenge: Strategies for the Foreign Language Teacher" (Richard Terry Mount, Joann McFerran Mount, Aida Z. Toplin). (MSE)

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NEW CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

DIMENSION: LANGUAGES '87

Edited by

T. BRUCE FRYER • FRANK W. MEDLEY, JR.

REPORT OF SOUTHERN CONFERENCE
ON LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Preface

As a result of the 1987 joint meeting of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), the authors for *Dimension: Languages '87* represent a wider geographic area than in previous years. Coming from California, Indiana, Maryland, Michigan, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Tennessee and Texas, these authors reflect the conference theme, "New Challenges and Opportunities," through the diverse nature of their papers. They form a unique blend of research and theory with practical experience giving us food for thought as well as ready-to-be-implemented ideas.

Albert Valdman of Indiana University presents a report of the Symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency in which he stresses the need for continued dialogue between those involved in the oral proficiency movement and its critics. While applauding the renewed vigor in the profession as a result of this movement, he outlines the concerns of methodologists and applied linguists who feel that perhaps a more theoretical and empirical basis needs to be established for national proficiency guidelines.

Carmen Villegas Rogers, William H. Heflin and John B. Romeiser of the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, provide a complete outline of their work in developing a proficiency-based curriculum. A comparison of a traditional syllabus design and a proficiency-based syllabus design is offered, as well as text and materials considerations, and suggestions for the preparation of teaching assistants.

Lowering student anxiety toward foreign language study is the topic of the paper prepared by Christine M. Campbell and José Ortiz of the Defense Language Institute. A review of the literature on anxiety in the foreign language classroom is followed by a description of their research project at the Institute and the anxiety workshop in which all DLI students participate before taking their first class.

Barbara Gonzalez Pino of the University of Texas at San Antonio offers a wealth of practical approaches for the teacher searching for ways to teach listening and speaking. She takes us through three phases of questioning, nine formats for daily listening practice and ten speaking formats of graduated difficulty. Suggestions are made for the integration of reading and writing activities and for evaluation and grading.

Richard G. Kern of the University of California at Berkeley discusses the differences between native language reading ability and foreign language reading ability, refuting earlier studies which implied that reading skills were transferred from the native to the second language. He further suggests strategies for the teaching of reading so that linguistic, cognitive and affective factors are considered.

"In real-life we always write for a reason, and there is always a real-life receiver of the written text . . . and we really don't expect to have our message returned to us covered with red ink and suggestions for correction!" So we are reminded by Hannelore Jarausch of the University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill and Clare Tufts of Duke University who focus on the writing skill and the importance of its development from beginning language study to advanced. They propose numerous well-conceived activities with tips for the evaluation of the writing skill.

In response to the criticism that schools do not allow students to develop critical thinking skills, Marie-Cecile Louvet of Montgomery County Public Schools delineates a Socratic teaching model which allows the student to discover the desired concept through a series of analytical and evaluative thought processes. The teacher is no longer the sole source of information as the students are encouraged to analyze examples, hypothesize, examine and describe their thinking while arriving at their conclusions.

Donna Reseigh Long and Linda L. Harlow of The Ohio State University isolate the use of newspapers and magazines designed for the native speakers as an effective means of integrating the five skill areas of foreign language learning. In addition to a synthesis of the literature concerning authentic material, they offer suggestions and caveats for the selection and preparation of materials and accompanying activities.

June K. Phillips of the Tennessee Foreign Language Institute and Eileen W. Glisan of Indiana University of Pennsylvania address the issue of two levels of proficiency facing foreign language teachers in secondary schools. On the one hand, teachers are concerned with the maintenance and improvement of their own oral proficiency; on the other, they need to be able to teach and test for proficiency in the classroom. The authors describe the year-long program developed at Indiana University which includes: Saturday Immersion sessions during the academic year; a summer institute dealing with proficiency training and proficiency-oriented curriculum design; development of a specific project for implementation during the following academic year; and, evaluation and dissemination of project results.

Expanding on the theme of foreign language for business, Brigitte D. Muller of Eastern Michigan University presents her two-semester sequence in scientific and technical French which complements the two-semester sequence in French for business and economy. This sequence prepares EMU students to take the examination for the Certificate in Scientific and Technical French of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Paris. Ronald Carl Cere, also of Eastern Michigan University, outlines the necessary procedures in establishing a business Spanish course, describes his successful model of a four-semester sequence, and provides useful sample syllabi and strategies. His program also affords students the opportunity to receive certification from the Chamber of Commerce of Madrid.

Richard Terry Mount, Joann McFerran Mount and Aida Z. Toplin of the University of North Carolina-Wilmington "make the case for videocassettes." They cite the practicality of videocassettes over films, offer various uses emphasizing the importance of introduction, comprehension check and follow-up activities, and alert us to the various considerations in selecting materials and equipment.

The challenges to today's foreign language teacher are myriad, yet the opportunities to meet these challenges are abundant and within reach as we continue to share ideas, keep abreast of the current thinking, debate the efficacy of various methodologies, and learn new techniques and skills through such meetings as the joint SCOLT/ACTFL conference. The quality and diversity of the papers selected for this publication speak highly of the scholarship, dedication and professionalism of our members.

Sincere appreciation is extended to the editors of this volume, T. Bruce Fryer and Frank W. Medley, Jr., of the University of South Carolina for their superb work and devotion, to James S. Gates, SCOLT Executive Secretary, and to Francis J. Dannerback, Chairman of the Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures of the University of South Carolina, for continued financial support in the design of the cover and the editing process. This year marks the first with an expanded SCOLT Editorial Board. Their excellent skills and knowledge of the field of foreign language education have added great new dimensions to our publication. We look forward to a continuation of the editorial board input and thank each of them personally for their contributions: Anthony Caprio and Dana Carton of American University, Thomas C. Cooper of the University of Georgia, Robert DiDonato of Miami University of Ohio, Ernest Freschette of Florida State University, Vicki Galloway of the American Council on Teaching Foreign Languages, Carl Johnson of the Texas Education Agency, Robert C. Lafayette of Louisiana State University, Myriam Met of the Montgomery County Public Schools, Genelle Morain of the University of Georgia, Alice Omaggio of the University of Illinois, W. Flint Smith of Purdue University, and Robert Terry of the University of Richmond.

Robin C. Snyder
1987 Chairperson, SCOLT

1

The Symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency:

Challenges to the Profession

Albert Valdman
Indiana University

Introduction

The ETS-ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) has had a profound impact on the foreign language (FL) teaching profession over the last four or five years.[1] There is scarcely any area of the field that has not been affected by this attempt to institute a national metric based on demonstrated proficiency in a FL and, more importantly, to define achievement in language instruction in terms of functional use rather than command of a specific body of material or, as Barbara Freed has put it, mere "seat-time."

But what has come to be called the "Proficiency Movement" involves much more than the development and dissemination of a particular instrument for the evaluation of demonstrable functional use of a FL. At the heart of the Movement are the ACTFL Guidelines which are viewed by some of its proponents as a veritable blueprint for the planning and delivery of FL instruction at the high school and university level. The generic guidelines define global proficiency levels in terms of three sets of judgments: (1) the ability to carry out certain functions using the target language, (2) the ability to deal with certain topic or content units, (3) the ability to produce a range of structural and discourse features with accuracy. Proponents of the Proficiency Movement stress the experiential rather than hypothetical nature of the Guidelines (Omaggio, p. 35), and they are confident that they can be used to specify inventories of elements whose control will lead students to attain specified levels of proficiency.

> Because these guidelines and definitions represent actual rather than hypothetical language production, teachers can amend their expectations for students' linguistic and communicative development to conform to reality. The descriptions should prove useful in designing language programs, in the sense that they outline general performance criteria and specify the kinds of contexts and situations handled with reasonable ease at each level of competence. . . . Once we have identified, at least in terms of general performance criteria, what students have to know in order to function at or beyond a given level of competence, we will have come a long way toward knowing what it is we have to teach (Omaggio, p. 35).

There is general agreement that the Proficiency Movement launched by ACTFL has invigorated FL instruction and that is has had a beneficial backwash effect on a variety of areas from teacher training to material development and pedagogical procedures. Nonetheless several aspects of the OPI and the Guidelines have elicited severe reservations on the part of FL teaching methodologists and applied linguists who, like the proponents of the Proficiency Movement, place a high priority on the acquisition of functional skills by FL students. Unfortunately there has been little direct interaction between proponents of the Proficiency Movement and its critics. Yet this interaction could be mutually profitable, for it would lead to urgently needed research that would provide a firmer theoretical and empirical basis for not only a national FL proficiency metric but also for attempts to link levels of communicative ability in a FL to stages of acquisitional development. It was precisely in order to initiate this type of interaction that a Symposium on the Evaluation of FL Proficiency was held on the Bloomington Campus of Indiana University, March 4-6, 1987. To lay the groundwork for the Symposium, a workshop was organized in conjunction with the 1986 annual meeting of ACTFL in Dallas.

Based on the favorable reactions that followed the Workshop, approximately 30 American specialists of FL teaching methodology or applied linguistics were invited to prepare reports to be distributed in advance or to serve as discussants and resource persons at the Symposium.[2] They were selected from experts who have in various ways been concerned with the development of communicative ability in a FL and the assessment of that ability: (1) those involved in the development and the administration of the OPI and the elaboration of the ACTFL Guidelines; (2) those involved in the training and certification of OPI raters; (3) those involved in the elaboration of communicatively-oriented curricula, syllabuses, teaching procedures, and materials; (4) those involved in the observation and analysis of second language learning. The participants represented a broad range of second and foreign language teaching situations: the commonly taught languages (French, German, and Spanish) and the major less commonly taught languages (Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Indonesian, Russian, and Subsahara African languages) in the United States; indigenous languages of the Americas (including creoles); the less commonly taught languages of Europe; and the teaching of English as a second language. In addition to the participants several overseas observers were invited, especially from Western Europe where FL teaching specialists have taken the lead in developing communicatively-oriented programs and international schemes for the definition and assessment of proficiency levels, for example the Threshold Level and the Niveau Seuil. Invitations were also extended to a small number of representatives from professional groups and federal agencies involved in research and development in FL learning and in FL teaching.

The proceedings of the Symposium, containing all the position papers, discussant reports, and summaries of discussions are now available.[2] In this report, I will attempt to focus on the reservations expressed about the OPI and the Guidelines. I have selected four problem areas that were discussed at the Symposium: (1) the global nature of the OPI and related issues of validity, reliability, and fairness; (2) the view of communicative interaction inherent in the Guidelines; (3) the relationship between the OPI scales and the Guidelines and the nature of FL acquisition; (4) practical problems posed by the generalized used of the OPI. In the concluding section of this report I will mention some research directions identified at the Symposium.

Issues

1. The global nature of the OPI

For Lyle Bachman the central question in evaluating the OPI and the ACTFL-Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) guidelines is whether they constitute a valid measure of communicative language proficiency, defined as the ability to conduct culturally embedded verbal interaction with speakers of the target language community. He answered in the negative because he believes the OPI confounds the competence to be measured with the method of measurement. Developers of the OPI are confronted with a dilemma. They can aim for greater standardization and trade less content validity for more reliability of scoring; or they can expand the range of sample tasks and trade closer approximation to real linguistic interaction for reduced reliability.

Bachman views communicative language ability not as a holistic construct but one composed of three sets of constituent capabilities, each of which should be evaluated separately and each of which makes different predictions about an examinee's ability to perform specific communicative tasks. The Functional Trisection, which developers of the OPI view as its keystone, becomes for Bachman its chief liability, because the very use of the same performance sample to simultaneously evaluate content, function, and structural accuracy confuses test design with evaluation, content, and method. He also underscores the limited view of the nature of communicative proficiency reflected by evaluation guidelines that pay insufficient attention to pragmatic and sociolinguistic considerations. Instead he proposes a tripartite model in which linguistic structure, narrowly defined to encompass phonology, morphosyntax, and lexicon, forms only one of the four subcomponents of langauge competence. Bachman's scheme resembles the widely used Canale-Swain model in its stress on the rhetorical, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic features of interactive verbal communication. It differs, however, in that it isolates as a separate component control of motor skills, grouped under psychophysiological competence, and distinguishes more clearly between rules of language use, subsumed under pragmatic competence, and strategic competence. The latter identifies the ability to plan, execute, and assess socially embedded speech acts as a distinct and important part of communicative language ability.

The componential approach also characterizes the proficiency evaluation model devised specifically for Arabic and African langauges by Patrick Bennett and Ann Bierstecker. As is the case with Bachman's proposal, this scheme places greater emphasis on pragmatic and sociocultural aspects of verbal interactions than does the OPI.

Looking at the OPI from a narrower psychometric perspective Elana Shohamy raised questions about its validity and reliability. She granted that with extensive and **continuous** (underscoring mine) training of raters, acceptable levels of interrater reliability may be attained. However, she listed other types of reliability to which developers of the OPI have not paid sufficient attention: test-retest reliability, parallel forms reliability, and interinterviewer reliability. Because the interviewer is an integral part of the test such factors as interviewer attitude, personality, and rapport with the individual being tested greatly influence results. Shohamy also stressed the narrow nature of the range of interactional competence tapped by the OPI, and she reported that a recent study she and her collaborators conducted showed only moderate correlations between four different types of verbal interactions: an interview, a role play, a reporting task, and a discussion. Observations such as these have led the Israel Ministry of Education to abandon an oral interview used for nearly twenty years in favor of a more varied scheme that samples verbal performance in the aforementioned four types of interaction. In addition, each part of the test is conducted by a different person.

Shohamy also mentions the need for applying criteria other than validity and reliability: utility, accuracy, feasibility, and fairness. For example, she points out that an important factor in the implementation of the OPI test is its positive backwash effect on instruction, particularly demands for higher levels of oral proficiency to be demonstrated by teachers and greater stress on the development of oral skills. With respect to the criterion of fairness, which Shohamy defines as insuring that a test be conducted legally, ethically, and with regard to the welfare of the individuals tested as well as others affected by test results, failure to sufficiently take it into account holds great potential risks in our litigious society.

The potential legal problems raised by the use of the OPI for purposes of establishing degree requirements and for teacher certification is precisely the issue addressed by Sally Magnan in her contribution. Referring to recent court cases, she stressed the need to establish the content and instructional validity of the test and its efficacy as a predictor of successful use of the target language and teaching competence. The link between proficiency in the language taught and pedagogical effectiveness will prove particularly difficult to establish in view of the multiplicity of objectives of general academic FL instruction and the vast array of knowledge and skills it demands on the part of teachers. Magnan cited the disquieting juridical precedent created by the 1979 case (Armstead versus Starkville Municipal Separate School District) in which the Graduate Record Examination was found unconstitutional as a criterion for the hiring and retention of high school teachers because its constituent tasks could not be proven to be directly related to good teaching. For these reasons, Magnan recommends that the use of the OPI or similar instruments for FL teacher certification should not be administered by degree granting institutions or employers of teachers but should be entrusted instead to professional teacher organizations.

John Clark and Ray Clifford outlined a program of research that would validate and provide a firmer empirical base for the OPI and the

ACTFL-ILR guidelines. They admit that, paradoxically, the OPI falls considerably short as a face- and content-valid measure of communicative interaction. They suggest research involving the correlation of OPI scores with a wider variety of more face- and content-valid activities and with highly specific tasks in employment and language use settings. Clark and Clifford also granted that the developers of the OPI must resolve problems on intra- and interrater reliability, and they pointed out that another area that deserves research is that of the relative resistance of communicative ability to attrition.

2. The nature of communicative interaction

Even in their new revised form, the Guidelines stress structural accuracy and functional adequacy to the detriment of sociolinguistic and discourse competence. In response to Heidi Byrnes' laudable attempt to incorporate these competences in the OPI scales, Claire Kramsch identified three weaknesses that make the OPI a less than adequate measure of what she termed interactional competence and that doom to reductionism all attempts to broaden the scope of rater judgments. First, because of the interactional nature of communication, the rater, as a cooperative partner in the elicitation of ratable samples, introduces an uncontrollable variable. As Bachman pointed out this results in a serious confounding of test content and test method. Second, basing the Guidelines on specific norms is incompatible with the evaluation of sociolinguistic competence which requires constant shifting of norms in reaction to the subtle changes in the social situation that inevitably occur during communicative interaction. Third, Kramsch pointed out the implicit sociocultural bias of a test that places a high premium on conversational management skills and decontextualized linguistic features associated with certain cultural levels and social groups. To eliminate these shortcomings, she suggested replacing the discrete behavioristic objectives, characteristic of traditional practice, with more abstract sociocultural constructs.

For Dale Lange one of the most serious problems for the implementation of the Guidelines is that level definitions related to the socio-cultural context are relegated to the upper end of the OPI scale. As Claire Kramsch (1986) has repeatedly stressed, genuine interactional competence, at any level, presupposes sociocultural knowledge.

> Without it, students are at the mercy of content structure, of the words they hear or read, without being able to recognize either the personal intentions or the cultural assumptions behind the words (p. 368).

The adaptation of the OPI and the Guidelines to the assessment of proficiency in languages other than the commonly taught Western European languages (one of the topics discussed at the Symposium) has heightened our awareness of how cultural considerations powerfully determine the degree of acceptable sociolinguistic deviance in learners' interlanguage. Unlike the Western European languages in general, those of the Far East, for example, require speakers to constantly situate themselves socially and choose appropriate linguistic variants with respect to the status of their interlocutors. It is clear that for such languages suitable guidelines must incorporate statements about sociolinguistic competence at the lowest proficiency levels.

3. The relationship between the OPI scales and the Guidelines and the nature of FL learning

As Nina Garrett pointed out in her position paper on the role of grammar in the Proficiency Movement:

> The Guidelines as rating level descriptions were originally developed on the basis of experiential data, reflecting the job-related requirements of the population being tested, rather than on the basis of adult classroom second language acquisition theory or theoretically motivated empirical research.

She delineated two mutually exclusive positions concerning the place of grammar in the OPI and the Guidelines: (1) relative levels of grammatical accuracy and sequences for the use of specific grammatical features are determined on the basis of experiential evidence, in which case no independent validation (for example, on the basis of psycholinguistic evidence) is necessary; or (2) such independent validation is used to legitimize claims about the developmental order of grammatical features and specification of levels of accuracy. Like several other Symposium participants, notably Dan Douglas and Dale Lange, Nina Garrett stressed the priority of theory construction and testing in determining the role of linguistic features in the acquisition of functional skills. Douglas noted that, because of the complexity of verbal communication, it cannot be claimed that the mastery of any set of linguistic features corresponds to a given degree of communicative effectiveness.

Lange pointed out that a glaring flaw in the Guidelines is that their experiential base consists of observations of adult learners. Extrapolating from this base to classroom learning involving children, adolescents, and young adults entails the assumption that FL learning processes remain constant across these various groups. I might add that another weakness involves extrapolation from the specific-purpose instruction characteristic of the various government agencies concerned with FL training and the fundamental instruction that forms the bulk of school and university FL teaching.

John de Jong, representing the Dutch agency for educational testing (CITO), suggested that at lower levels of proficiency, learners are more dependent on structural features and that, consequently, at these levels test might need to be criterion-referenced and discrete-point. More advanced learners have acquired sufficient strategic competence to compensate for structural deficiencies, and their proficiency can be assessed on a single dimension. These facts would lead us to question whether an instrument originally devised by FSI for evaluating a relatively high level of proficiency (S-3 on the FSI scale and Superior on the ACTFL scale) should be the model for assessing the much lower levels of competence realistically attainable by academic learners.

Another moot issue in the evaluation of FL proficiency is the construct of educated native speaker (ENS) speech, which constitutes the implicit target norm in the ACTFL Guidelines and the explicit one for the ILR version. In my own position paper, I argued that in classroom FL instruction, such a target is too restrictive, and I provided as an alternative a multitarget model of language variation according to which native speakers differ with respect to a variety of norms and the degree to which they are influenced by shared norms in particular social contexts. According to that model the speech of native speakers also varies with regard to relative planning in response to another set of social and contextual factors. I suggested that the special social context represented by the FL classroom warrants the establishment of special pedagogical norms. Because it involves the presentation in pedagogical materials of sociolinguistically stigmatized features, the notion of pedagogical norm raises the thorny issue of accuracy and fossilization. Sociolinguistic deviance is unavoidable in early-level interlanguage; even speech targeted on ENSs may be deviant in certain social contexts. The issue of the terminal 2+, around which discussions about the importance of grammatical accuracy have turned, will generate more heat than light until a solid body of empirical observations can be adduced in support of the claim that allowing learners to produce communicatively adequate but structurally deviant utterances inevitably leads to fossilization. Perhaps fossilization can be reduced by a better match between communicative demands and linguistic means available to learners. But instead of reducing functional demands in the interest of more accurate grammatical expression I suggested that, whenever possible, the level of grammatical complexity be adjusted to the learners' limited competence.

4. Administrative and practical problems

The implementation of a national metric for the assessment of functional ability in FLs poses numerous administrative and budgetary problems. Few institutions of higher learning, and even fewer school systems, are equipped to administer a resource-intensive test of functional ability. What is the most efficient administrative structure for training qualified testers and validating training of individual teachers? Of course, the answers will vary depending on the number of learners of a given language. Whereas there are ten of thousands of learners of French, German and Spanish, only a few dozen persons each year attempt to acquire a functional ability in such languages as Dutch, Haitian Creole, or Indonesian.

Another set of questions that must be answered concerns the various uses of a national metric. At what levels of study (beginning, intermediate, advanced) should learners be administered resource-intensive tests and for what skills? Should a national metric be used for validation of foreign language study at the secondary school level? For placement in university courses? For university language requirements? For certification of language majors or prospective secondary school teachers? For admission to specialized graduate school programs?

More than five years after its introduction at the high school and university level the OPI is still not widely used. The somewhat trial nature of the test results in large part from the immense logistic and financial problems posed by its widespread and massive use. Nonetheless two noteworthy attempts have been made to assess FL learning by the use of a proficiency test. An important part of the Symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency were progress reports of the attempt to institute language proficiency requirements at the University of Pennsylvania and at the University of Minnesota.

Barbara Freed described the University of Pennsylvania's pioneering adaptation in 1981 of a variant of the FSI test and ILR guidelines as a proficiency-based exit requirement in fourth-semester FL courses. The initiative required a two-year preparatory period during which administrative procedures were devised, student fears allayed, suitable instruments implemented, and appropriate cut-off levels determined. Although the introduction of proficiency-based exit requirements have not led to a demonstrable improvement in student performance after two years of study, it has invigorated the FL programs and markedly improved articulation between lower-division courses by providing long-term objectives independent of specific course content. Most importantly, it has shown that an evaluation instrument such as the OPI that makes special demands for staff time and training and that induces considerable student anxiety can indeed by integrated into the curriculum of mid-size university programs.

As was the case with the University of Pennsylvania program, the University of Minnesota initiative described by Dale Lange was motivated by an educational policy decision to define achievement in FL study in terms of demonstrable proficiency rather than time spent in study. The Minnesota program is a bolder experiment because it involves a redefinition of both entrance and graduation requirements in proficiency terms. A typical midwestern state university, Minnesota has larger lower-division FL programs than those of private institutions like the University of Pennsylvania. Also, changes in the entrance requirements of public universities necessarily have a backwash effect on local high school graduation requirements, and they require close coordination between administrators and teachers at both levels. These differences are reflected in the form of the test itself and also in the guidelines that underlie the proficiency ratings and the levels of minimal performance. As was the case for Barbara Freed, Dale Lange did not adopt the ACTFL Guidelines unquestioningly. On the contrary, he underscored some of their shortcomings, particularly for the reading requirement, and he recommended continued validation and revision. He concluded with a thorough and candid analysis of the problems that the implementation of any integrated proficiency-based FL program faces given the many inadequacies of prevalent teacher training, curriculum and syllabus design, materials development, and, most importantly, administrative practices in major university FL programs.

The exit proficiency levels set at the University of Pennsylvania and at the University of Minnesota lead one to question the emphasis that the Proficiency Movement places on developing a national metric for the assessment of oral interaction skills for what I have termed basic, fundamental FL instruction. At both institutions, the oral proficiency level is fixed at the Intermediate Mid level which is defined in the old Generic Guidelines as the ability to satisfy most survival needs and limited social demands in a manner that is intelligible to native speakers used to dealing with foreigners (the revised 1986 Guidelines are couched in somewhat different terms: the ability to handle successfully a variety of uncomplicated, basic and communicative tasks and social situations and to be understood by sympathetic interlocutors). At the University of Minnesota entrance oral proficiency levels are set at the Novice High level which is defined in the 1986 Generic Guidelines as the ability to satisfy partially the requirements of basic communicative exchanges by relying heavily on learned utterances but occasionally expanding these through simple recombinations of their elements. Learners at the Novice High level will have difficulty being understood even by sympathetic interlocutors. It is legitimate to ask what educational purpose is served by a test designed to measure levels of attainment so low as to pose acute problems of reliability and, ultimately, of fairness.

The gain in oral interactive proficiency between entrance and exit that the University of Minnesota testing program attempts to measure is relatively meager. Such a testing program could meet the criterion of fairness only if it could be demonstrated that the assessment met high standards of reliability. However Barbara Freed pointed out that, although the Pennsylvania proficiency test adheres to the guidelines and format of the OPI, it is administered and scored by teaching assistants who generally have not undergone the rigorous training required for ACTFL certification. Because the University of Minnesota oral proficiency tests need to be administered to hundreds of students, it takes the form of the ROPE (Recorded Oral Proficiency Examination) rather than the standard OPI. Although it is evaluated in terms of the ILR guidelines, the ROPE (Lowe & Clifford) uses a stimulus audiotape on which conversational questions of increasing complexity and sophistication are asked by a native speaker. As is the case at the University of Pennsylvania, the scoring is handled by relatively untrained graduate teaching assistants rather than by certified teachers.

Protase Woodford emphasized the need for compromise in the generalization of a common metric. He pointed out that the University of Pennsylvania's pioneering initiative required setting standards below those needed for students to reach the functional objectives selected. For instance, attainment of the Advanced level in reading would scarcely be sufficient for the analysis of a piece of literature. He suggested the elaboration of two sets of scales. One set would provide teachers with detailed information for diagnostic purposes; a second set, couched in more general performance objectives, would be addressed to users.

John Clark and Ray Clifford mentioned attempts by government agencies to develop variants of the OPI that are less onerous to administer and that measure linguistic skills other than interactional ability.

Conclusion

Without denigrating the considerable accomplishments resulting from the various initiatives undertaken by ACTFL, it is fair to say that much remains to be done before the FL teaching profession has at its disposal a common metric to measure proficiency in the functional use of language in its various modalities that meets generally recognized canons of face validity, reliability, and fairness and which, at the same time, is relatively easy and economical to administer on a large scale. Even more remains to be done before we can substantiate any claims about direct links between the attainment of various levels of proficiency and stages in second language development, on the one hand, or between specific levels of proficiency and inventories of discrete linguistic, discourse, or sociolinguistic features that need to be mastered, on the other hand.

In his perceptive synthesis of the Symposium G. Richard Tucker remarked that much of the controversy surrounding the adaptation of the ACTFL Guidelines and the OPI to what I have termed the fundamental FL teaching programs of high schools and universities (the teaching of FL as part of a liberal education) is attributable to an attempt to meet a variety of incompatible objectives and to please a disparate clientele. He felt that progress in the development of more valid and reliable testing procedures required collaborative work in three areas. First, operational definitions of basic terms such as "fluency", "accuracy", and even "proficiency" need to be developed. Indeed, Pardee Lowe considered this to be the most important challenge that the FL teaching profession must take on. Without precision and common agreement in the use of basic terms, exchange of information and constructive discusson are nigh impossible. Second, a proactive research program for the validation of the OPI and the Guidelines patterned on that which has accompanied the development and the refinement of the TOEFL test needs to be instituted. I have indicated some suggested topics for a vigorous program of research and development earlier in this report, but let me mention several others: (1) comparing the scores of various proficiency tests with actual performance in real world language use tasks; (2) submitting proficiency test scores to secondary analysis, for example, having academic testers score tests rated by government agencies raters and vice-versa; (3) determining to what extent the ability to make reliable OPI rating remains constant over time and exmining the relative resistance of various types of linguistic features to attrition and language loss; and (4) exploring which linguistic features are more likely to trigger stereotypic reactions on the part of native speakers or those who use test results. Finally, Tucker made a plea for wider sharing of information, not only within this country but on an international basis.

At the symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency, a number of concerns about the direction taken by the development of the OPI surfaced. The Proficiency Movement is still in its incipient stage.

Given many of the gaps in our understanding of the nature of FL proficiency and of processes of FL learning, it seems hazardous to continue to focus on stressing the evaluation of communicative interaction. It is also risky to invest in developing the OPI to measure low-levels of proficiency. The amount of interactional skills that can be developed in our short high school language sequences or in elementary and intermediate university courses is too small and too evanescent. It would be naive to assume that when they discover that the typical four year high school FL program will only develop the ability to meet survival needs and limited social demands, students and administrators will clamor for longer periods of study that can guarantee meaningful communicative ability. On the contrary, such a realization may erase current positive attitudes toward FL study or lead to a backlash against emphasis on oral skills. It would be better to invest in developing proficiency tests for those skills, such as listening comprehension and reading, where more significant results can be shown after modest periods of study. Also, these skills are more robust and less likely to be eroded than communicative ability. Speaking proficiency could be evaluated by the various types of semi-direct procedures described by John Clark and Ray Clifford, and the evaluation should serve mainly diagnostic purposes.

More importantly, the limited means at our disposal should be marshalled for the development of valid and reliable tests for the evaluation of students who are learning FL's for specific purposes: undergraduate language majors, graduate students, and prospective teachers. Early indications of foreign language education majors revealed that nearly half of those tested ranged from Intermediate High to Novice High on the ACTFL scale or 1+ to 0+ on the FSI scale. Alas, we must assume that this shocking state of affairs may not have improved appreciably. Our first priority must be the development of proficiency tests which specialists in testing and second language learning believe to be sufficiently valid, reliable, and fair to be made an integral part of the training of our FL specialists, including those entrusted with the teaching of FL's as a fundamental part of a general education.

Notes

[1] The following positions papers were presented (discussant names are listed after each paper): John L. D. Clark, Ray T. Clifford, "The FSI/ILR/ACTFL Proficiency Scales and Testing Techniques: Development, Current Status, and Needed Research;" Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro, "The

ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines: An Update;" Lyle F. Bachman, "Problems in Examining the Validity of the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview," (Sally Magnan, Elana Shohamy); David Hiple, "The Extension of Language Proficiency Guidelines and Oral Proficiency Testing to the Less Commonly Taught Languages," (Ron Walton, Sally S. Magnan, Patrick Bennett, Ernest N. McCarus, Jos Nivette, David Singleton, Irene Thompson, John U. Wolff); Dan Douglas, "Testing Listening Comprehension in the Context of the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines," (John H. A. L. de John, Harry L. Gradman); Albert Valdman, "The Problem of the Target Model in Proficiency-Oriented Foreign Language Instruction," (Pardee Lowe, Jr., John U. Wolff); Heidi Byrnes, "Features of Pragmatic and Sociolinguistic Competence in the Oral Proficiency Interview," (Dell Hymes, Claire Kramsch); Nina Garrett, "The Role of Grammar in the Development of Communicative Ability," (Simon Belasco, Theodore V. Higgs); Susan M. Gass, "L2 Vocabulary Acquisition," (James R. Child, Sharon Lapkin, Susanne Carroll); Barbara F. Freed, "Issues in Establishing and Maintaining a Language Proficiency Requirement;" Dale L. Lange, "Developing and Implementing Proficiency Oriented Tests for a New Language Requirement at the University of Minnesota: Issues and Problems for Implementing the ACTFL/ETS/ILR Proficiency Guidelines," (Robert C. Lafayette, Sandra Savignon, Protase Woodford); G. Richard Tucker, "Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency: Synthesis."

[2] Albert Valdman, ed. *Proceedings of the Symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency*. Bloomington, Ind.: Committee for Research and Development in Language, Indiana University, 1987.

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2

Conversion to a Proficiency Oriented Curriculum at the University Level

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Introduction

For some years now, foreign language teachers have professed a desire to develop in their students the ability to communicate in the second language beyond the confines of the classroom. Conference presentations, articles in professional journals, and in-service workshops have extolled the virtues of one activity type over another, of one testing procedure over another, of one set of materials over another. Yet in spite of all the avowed interest in making substantive changes, few have dared do much more than modify random exercises, add an occasional "communicative activity" (when time permits), and perhaps re-word the current set of Course Objectives so that they incorporate more of the "buzz words" in vogue.

The result of these mostly cosmetic changes has been that when measures of functional ability are applied to students taught within a traditionally-organized curriculum, all parties are embarrassed by the results! Clearly, the modifications need to be made at a much more elemental level—within the curriculum planning process itself. Yet, as someone once observed, it is ". . . easier to move a cemetery than to revise a curriculum."

Several higher education institutions are actively involved in implementing proficiency-oriented instruction in varying degrees. The University of Minnesota, the University of Pennsylvania (Schulz, 1988), and the University of South Carolina (Medley, 1985) are restructuring their curricula in an effort to develop proficiency in the four skills. Other institutions such as Stanford University, the University of Florida, and the University of Illinois are focusing primarily on the oral competencies of the students as a condition for satisfying foreign language requirements (Schulz, 1988). The Department of Romance Languages at Howard University in Washington, D.C. has revised its traditional language program in order to provide its students with more functional speaking ability at the elementary and intermediate levels (Camara-Norman, Davis and Wallace, 1987). While institutions such as the University of South Carolina and the University of Tennessee in Knoxville (UTK) began the process of conversion by setting goals and objectives for first and second years, in other programs, such as the one in the Department of French at Northwestern University, departmental goals and objectives were formulated concurrently with the initiation of proficiency-oriented activities (Heilenman, 1987).

This paper describes in some detail the approach which UTK followed in re-orienting its beginning and intermediate French and Spanish courses toward a more functional communicative emphasis. For some time prior to the implementation of the project described, several faculty members had discussed the possibility of incorporating more proficiency-oriented elements into the elementary and intermediate programs. However, lack of adequate information and experience, together with insufficient time, had prevented any concerted action.

Preliminary Activities

In 1986, the Tennessee Higher Education Commission (THEC) received a special appropriation from the state legislature for the purpose of encouraging efforts to improve undergraduate education throughout the state's public post-secondary system. Academic departments were invited to submit proposals for funds to support projects which would ultimately benefit large numbers of undergraduates. Upon learning of this statewide effort and the funds to support it, the Department of Romance Languages at UTK submitted in July 1986, a proposal to initiate the planning and development of a proficiency-based curriculum for its first and second-year programs in French and Spanish.

The timing of the proposal was fortunate, in that the general atmosphere at the time was favorable for funding such a project. In the first place, the College of Liberal Arts had recently implemented a stronger foreign language graduation requirement. Second, a new set of more stringent admission requirements for all Tennessee public colleges and universities had been approved for implementation in Fall 1989. Among these admission requirements, which apply to all students, regardless of their collegiate academic affiliation, is a requirement for at least two high school credits in a single foreign language. Third, a strong and growing interest nationwide in proficiency-based foreign language education had caught the attention and attracted the support of many Tennessee foreign language teachers, administrators, educational agencies, and professional groups.

Soon after being advised that the proposal was to be funded, the Department of Romance Languages proceeded to make the necessary arrangements for the participation of local faculty, and for the selection of specialists who could serve as project consultants. The Department provided released time for two faculty members from French, two others from Spanish, and the project director for the winter and spring quarters 1987. These five persons formed the local project team whose assignment was to work closely with the project consultants for the duration of the project, as well as to provide leadership in subsequent development and implementation.

The consultants were selected on the basis of their knowledge and experience in foreign language teaching and were on the UTK campus for a total of 30 days each during the project period. Throughout their consultations, they provided invaluable leadership, expertise and practical assistance to the local faculty team. They made special presentations to the total group in order to establish an understanding of basic principles and characteristics of a proficiency-based program. In addition, they conducted work sessions on the drafting of course goals and objectives, the identification of appropriate teaching/learning activities, the review of sample print and non-print teaching materials, the discussion of selected readings in the professional literature, and the identification of resources related to the aims of the project. On other occasions, they consulted with the members of the local team, both individually and by language groups, in response to special interests and concerns which arose during the course of the project. Finally, they critiqued the work which the local team did between their visits to UTK. In addition to the long-term consultants, the Department was able to bring to campus four other distinguished faculty members whose areas of specialization in culture, textbook adaptation, and language media development were of particular importance to the project.

To support the activities of the project, as well as subsequent work in curriculum and test development, the Department of Romance Languages acquired several items of basic audiovisual (A/V) equipment. With this equipment, the project faculty has been able to preview a wide variety of audio and videotaped materials as well as conduct and tape oral proficiency interviews. It became increasingly evident during the project that this equipment would be equally important for such future activities as training of teaching assistants (TAs), previewing and selecting additional A/V materials, and developing and testing functional ability in the language.

Because genuine proficiency-based programs are still largely in the conceptual stages, it became important for the local faculty to have access to appropriate opportunities for specialized professional development. As part of their work in this project, two local faculty attended workshops and began training that would lead to their certification as oral proficiency interviewers and raters. In addition, one of these persons served as the departmental representative to a national conference in New York, where she attended several proficiency-related meetings and began to identify available print and non-print teaching materials suitable for the orientation of the project.

Details of the Project

Syllabus Design and Preparation

The bulk of the effort to date has been the preparation of the syllabus based on specified goals and objectives. These statements of student outcomes are reflected in the syllabus as well as in the contents of the courses. During this stage, attention has been given primarily to building into the syllabus the time necessary for the students to practice the functions included in the objectives. To be compatible with a proficiency orientation, sufficient time should be allocated not only to formally present new material but also to allow students ample opportunity to use it communicatively in class. More important, the tasks to be carried out determine the lexical, grammatical, and cultural points to be included. In other words, the lexicon, grammar, and culture support the functions which the students are learning to perform. This approach incorporates another principle critical to the syllabus: the recycling or spiraling of functions and content areas. As the College Board's *Academic Preparation in Foreign Language* points out, instead of relegating one function to a single content it is important to combine and recombine functions and contexts at various points and in different ways during instructional time (pp. 41–2). A simple structure such as yes/no questions in Spanish can be taught first to demonstrate the function of asking questions. Later on, further into the textbook, the teacher can reintroduce the same function of asking questions with a different structure (e.g.: interrogatives) used in different contexts (a restaurant, a hotel, etc.) (Medley, 1985, p. 32).

In addition to including functions, contexts, grammar and lexicon in the syllabus, practice in the four skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) must be kept in mind as well as the cultural component. This results in fewer discrete point activities (i.e.: drilling subject pronouns) and more integrated activities that involve more than one skill. One way to integrate several skills into a meaningful context is to think of a main activity with one skill in mind and then expand the activity to develop another skill. For example, from a speaking activity such as a paired interview, the teacher can generate a writing exercise by having the students make a list of similarities or differences between themselves and the person interviewed. Following this activity, several students can be asked to read their lists to the class. As they read, the others will be asked to listen carefully and identify two characteristics that they have in common with the person reading. Finally, various students will be asked to state the two similarities or differences that they share. In this way, one skill serves as a springboard for the development of the other three.

One way to illustrate the major changes involved in redesigning a curriculum so that it reflects a more communicative emphasis is to compare a typical traditional syllabus with one that is proficiency-oriented. In the traditional syllabus the textbook often dominates the content and sequence of the syllabus, which is little more than a list of the textbook's table of contents arranged chronologically. Moreover, since the context, lexicon and structure are in many instances the main areas to be considered there is no mention of the functions. (See Figure 1)

Heilenman and Kaplan (1984) explain that with this type of curriculum it has been assumed that learning a foreign language equals learning that language's structure and vocabulary. Furthermore, they add, curricula of this type have form and not function as their real goal.

Figure 1
"Typical" Syllabus Design

Chapter Title	Function	Context/Content	Vocab/Structures	Culture
At the restaurant	Not specified	food items	nouns, partitives	typical meals
Shopping	Not specified	clothing, colors	noun/adj agreement negative sentences	haute couture
At the hotel	Not specified	hotels	irreg verbs numbers nouns	types of hotels

The proficiency-oriented syllabus, on the other hand, begins with the functions and adds appropriate (and authentic) contexts and the structural, lexical and/or cultural items needed to carry out the functions. Thus such as syllabus tends to reflect the outcomes of instruction in terms of student performance and independent from the textbook. A proficiency-oriented syllabus might appear as follows:

Figure 2
Proficiency-Oriented Syllabus Design

Chapter Title	Function	Context/Content	Vocab/Structures	Culture
At the table	ask questions	at a restaurant at the table	nouns, partitives question formation expressions	"Three star restaurants" using Michelin guide
Shopping	describe ask/answer questions list negotiate	market, stores	noun/adj agreement expressions interrogatives	bargaining department stores vs. market
At the hotel	give personal information ask/answer questions negotiate	hotels	irreg verbs expressions numbers	types of hotels

Although both syllabi treat similar topics and structures, the proficiency-based one places greater emphasis on what the student *will be able to do communicatively* with the language, rather than upon which structures will be "presented." Subsequent assessments, therefore, will focus more on functional uses of language (e.g. accepting/declining food) and less on knowledge or manipulation of discrete points of grammar (e.g. noun; partitives).

Preparation of the proficiency-based syllabus has been (and continues to be) the most time-consuming aspect of the project. First, broad goals for the instruction were established, and then amplified with more specific statements of objectives. Both the goals and objectives have been expressed in terms of student outcomes, rather than as lists of material "to be presented." For the purposes of the piloting phase of the project the faculty agreed upon the desired course goals. Appropriate materials have been selected, including the textbook and ancillaries.

Selection of Main Text

An essential resource in the preparation of a syllabus is the textbook. A textbook oriented toward proficiency makes the teacher's job easier with respect to preparation of syllabi, lesson plans, and additional materials. First, the task of the instructor is simplified since a textbook of this nature already contains some of the characteristics of a proficiency-oriented syllabus such as: 1) the sequencing and spiraling of content and functions; 2) the proper order of activities to achieve the objectives; 3) the functions that are concurrent with the objectives stated; and 4) the constant use of authentic language. Second, this type of text will assist in the lesson planning process, because in each chapter the functions are described, a variety of activities is suggested (listening comprehension exercises, drills, communicative activities, etc.) and the four skills and culture are included. Third, a textbook organized aroung function requires less use of additional materials since it is compatible with the objectives stated for the course. In other words, the more the textbook fits these objectives the fewer supplementary materials will be needed to fill the gap between the textbook and the objectives.

Looking ahead to full implementation of the new syllabus, UTK has been invited to pilot a set of materials being developed to enhance communicative functions and to create authentic cultural contexts. The materials are expected to be of great help in Spanish since their contents and goals are congruent with the new course organization, and the grammar is presented to support these functions and not just to be learned for its own sake.

Collection of Supplementary Materials

In spite of the improved quality of some textbooks in circulation or under development, it is anticipated that there will be a need for supplementary materials. These resources are used in four ways: 1) to enrich, illustrate or expand linguistic and cultural topics; 2) to bring current authentic materials to the classroom and therefore provide more real language and genuine situations from the target culture; 3) to avoid total dependency on the textbook; and 4) to provide change of pace and variety of techniques in the classroom. For example, if there is a lexical or cultural unit about sports, it would be appropriate to follow up with video or audiotaped materials such as a television or radio segment taken from the sportscast. By consulting a broadcast schedule several days in advance, the materials can be prerecorded and ready for use when needed. When the segment is used in class, the students have the opportunity to hear the language they are learning (i.e., vocabulary, structures) being used in a "live" situation and in an authentic cultural context. Such activities tend to strengthen the attitude that the language they are learning is related to a "real" world and that it is actually used for the purpose of communication!

The collection of permanent materials at UTK has grown to include a number of commercially made videos such as *France from Within*, *The French Way*, *97 Publicités télévisées*, *Papa Poule*, etc. as well as other materials in Spanish recorded for classroom use (see Appendix). As for audiotaped materials, the *Champs Elysées* series and some recordings from Hispanic and French Canadian radio stations in the USA are being added to the collection. Finally, the Department has printed materials that range from journals and newspapers to realia items such as menus, greeting cards, etc. Following the recommendations of the media consultants, a language learning resource center is being considered to enhance the use of A/V materials. Additional acquisitions, lab facilities and personnel will be required to transform the traditional language lab into a multipurpose langauge learning resource center with multi-media capabilities.

Preparation of TAs

As in many language departments, most of the first and second-year classes are taught by graduate teaching assistants. When the proficiency-oriented curriculum is implemented, it will become imperative to prepare them to incorporate a more communicative approach into their teaching styles. Toward this end, short workshops have been offered in order to familiarize teaching assistants with proficiency principles. Furthermore, the required methods course incorporates a much stronger proficiency orientation then in previous years since its professor has become more conversant with proficiency through the Oral Proficiency Testing workshop and active participation is the project mentioned herein. TAs are expected to begin a gradual preparation by observing classes taught by the faculty involved in the project. Similarly, they will be provided with lesson plans which will serve as guides for their teaching and as models for development of additional lesson plans. Under the direction of faculty working with the proficiency-oriented classes, the TAs will help expand the collection of materials including picture files, video and audio recordings of authentic materials, and will create semi-authentic materials. As part of the preparation stage for TAs, they will be familiarized with the Oral Proficiency Interview techniques employed by senior faculty in assessing students' speaking skills.

Expansion of the Pilot Project

As for the faculty members in the department, their integration into the proficiency-oriented program, based on the results of the pilot study, will be voluntary and gradual. Those professors and instructors who are willing to participate in the pilot classes will begin working with the new syllabus in the winter of 1988. At that time, a semi-intensive course in Spanish will be offered in order to accommodate students who prefer to complete their first year of language in one quarter. These students meet for nine class hours a week as follows: two hours a day on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays, and one and a half hours a day on Tuesdays and Thursdays. They are taught by a team of professors who work very closely with the coordinator of the program.

The incorporation of a proficiency-oriented curriculum into the semi-intensive program offers several advantages. First, students in the intensive program have more weekly exposure to the language than those in regular classes who only have three contact hours a week. Second, since the syllabus is independent from the one in the year-long program, changes can be made in the experimental program without altering the regular first-year classes. Third, the relatively low enrollment, which is purposely maintained, becomes advantageous in that small classes are more suitable for a language program whose goals are functional.

Principal Outcomes of the Project

After one year of the project, the faculty members who have been involved recognize eight major benefits accruing to the Department and the University. The following summary describes these advantages:

1. The local faculty team members have increased their knowledge and understanding of proficiency-based foreign language programs as well as the particular opportunities and problems associated with their development and implementation. Moreover, several professors not involved in the project have already begun using selected proficiency-based materials and activities in their first and/or second year classes.
2. In terms of faculty collaboration in rethinking fundamental assumptions of the lower-level undergraduate

language program, it should be clear by now that the development of substantive goals and objectives based on the proficiency principles requires considerable thought and a disregarding of numerous preconceived notions. Instead of merely tinkering with the syllabus or ordering a new text in response to specific objections or a pervasive sense of lassitude with the status quo, the project faculty were compelled to develop a new curriculum from scratch. One of the major advantages of this process was that it placed a renewed emphasis on undergraduate language programs. Heretofore, the general impression was that the first and second-year French and Spanish sequence was the exclusive domain of graduate teaching assistants and their supervisors. Such an attitude was unfortunate in that it tended to relegate this numerically (in terms of student enrollment) important part of the Department's teaching mission to inferior status, despite the fact that almost all the faculty were teaching at least one or two courses annually at that level.

3. The opportunity to enrich the Department's collection of audio and video-based materials, as well as the necessary equipment for classroom playback, was another important byproduct of the Undergraduate Excellence Project. In acquiring taped material, special emphasis was placed on its "authentic" nature. In purchasing hardware such as VCR's, audio recorders, cameras, sound mixers, and portable PA systems, attention was given to their appropriateness for enhancing the goals and objectives under development for the academic program. As classes are often taught in rather far-flung places on a large campus, there was a special concern about portability and durability of equipment. Although slow at first to respond to the sudden windfall of hardware and software, department faculty are increasingly enthusiastic about incorporating the various non-print media into their classes.
4. Another consequence of the project had important implications for the community. For the first time in some years, graduate-level courses specifically intended for

high school foreign langauge teachers were created. Two courses were offered as two-week long workshops, and all discussion was conducted in the target languages of French and Spanish. The course in French stressed the utility of full-length French films on video for teaching language skills and culture in the secondary school classroom. The Spanish course, taking a slightly different track, focused on using authentic materials, particularly Spanish-langauge satellite and radio broadcasts, at the high school level. Both courses were well-subscribed, and the response was so enthusiastic that there is now a likelihood that they will be offered every summer, perhaps with slight variations in theme.

5. Faculty development was enhanced in two ways. First, the local project team, as well as the faculty at large on one or two occasions, had the opportunity to work closely with highly-qualified consultant fireign language educators. As was noted earlier, this close cooperation infused the faculty with new energy, ideas, and commitment. Other important aspects included grant-supported opportunities to attend and participate at such national meetings as ACTFL, the Northeast Conference, and CALICO. In addition, two members of the UTK team received oral proficiency tester training and will soon be certified to conduct the ACTFL oral interviews in French and Spanish. The Department's rather limited operating budget would never have allowed for such opportunities under normal circumstances.
6. A final benefit relates to the larger dimension of dissemination. Although the project is still in the early stages of sharing its findings with an external audience, it is safe to say that it is making an impact on foreign language teaching in the state of Tennessee. Through the medium of local and state meetings, in-service programs, and new organizations like the Tennessee School-College Collaborative, the Tennessee Foreign Language Institute, and the Tennessee Association of Departments of Foreign Languages, the undergraduate project for proficiency is being studied and evaluated at both the secondary and postsecondary levels. Increased interest in

articulation and outcomes assessment may ultimately lead in the next few years to an endorsement of the goals and objectives defined for the program by the State Department of Education, the University of Tennessee system, and State Board of Regents four-year institutions. A vigorous campaign to disseminate, discuss, and debate the principles adopted will almost certainly benefit the foreign language teaching profession. The next stage of the project is to develop appropriate testing instruments to measure student progress. Gradual implementation of curriculum and testing are therefore watchwords and keys to future success.

7. Provisional curriculum goals, objectives and representative teaching/learning activities have been developed for elementary French and Spanish in the areas of Listening, Reading, Speaking and Writing. Similar goals for intermediate French and Spanish are nearly completed. These goals and objectives are subject to change, as experience, increased knowledge, and other pertinent factors may dictate.
8. The goals of this project are in substantial accord with those of the foreign language recommendations of the College Board's Project Equality. This has already stimulated an exchange of ideas between the project team at UTK and private and public school foreign language teachers throughout Tennessee. Furthermore, many area middle and secondary school foreign language teachers have become acquainted with UTK activities through a local foreign language collaborative, the Alliance for Better Language Education (ABLE). Finally, a presentation on the project was recently made at a conference on academic challenges in math, science and foreign languages, sponsored by the Tennessee Department of Education. The result of these and similar activities projected for the future should be a closer working relationship between high school and university foreign language faculty, as well as improved articulation between their respective programs.

Conclusion

It is important to mention briefly what the Department perceives as ideal in order to complete the implementation of this type of curriculum. First of all, budgetary support must be available for continued faculty development, which will include more familiarization workshops that will enable the project faculty to communicate these principles to our colleagues when the time comes for total conversion to a proficiency-oriented curriculum. Second, released time has to be granted to at least one faculty member in each language in order to prepare and collect materials necessary for the effective teaching of authentic language. Third, UTK needs to provide a foreign language media center that is properly equipped and readily accessible to students.

The profession hasn't seen heady times like these since the early sixties. We are living in an age in which the enthusiasm for proficiency in foreign langauge teaching is contagious. Moreover, there is a consensus among most teachers on the need for functional language use. If this common interest is sustained with sufficient moral and financial support, there is a real potential for making significant changes in U.S. foreign language learning.

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3

Dispelling Students' Fears and Misconceptions about Foreign Language Study:

The Foreign Language Anxiety Workshop at The Defense Language Institute

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Introduction

A *Strategy for Excellence* (1986), the policy publication of The Defense Language Institute (DLI), affirms that "(t)he academic environment (at DLI) shall encourage controlled instructional experimentation or research" (p. 1). Reacting to the fundamental interest of DLI to promote research intra muros, the authors created a three-hour "Foreign Language Anxiety Workshop" that all beginning students in the departments of German, Korean, Spanish, and Russian at The Defense Language Institute (DLI), San Francisco, attend before entering their first class. The workshop was created to prepare students better psychologically for the experience of learning a foreign language in an intensive program.

The workshop, an activity in which all incoming students in DLI, San Francisco, now participate includes:

1. attitudinal survey constructed by the researchers—*Survey of Attitudes Specific to the Foreign Language Classroom* (*SASFLC*)—to assess the effect of the workshop. The survey, with a 5-point Likert Scale of 1 = strongly agree and 5 = strongly disagree, contains eleven items about foreign language anxiety and five items about the common myths of foreign langauge learning (e.g., It is necessary to have a special "ear" in order to learn a foreign language well.). It is distributed several times in the

six-month (Spanish), eight-month (German), or ten-month (Korean, Russian) program;

2. discussion about a questionnaire based on Paul Pimsleur's renowned text *How to Learn a Foreign Language* (1980). The questionnaire is entitled "The Myths and the Realities of Foreign Language Learning";
3. information on learning strategies specific to foreign language study;
4. exercise to develop confidence;
5. exercise to aid in coping with frustration;
6. discussion of the characteristics of the ideal foreign language learner.

The workshop, in addition to benefiting the individual student, helps to transform a disparate group of individuals, who will be sharing both classrooms and housing for six-months or more, into a cohesive community of language learners.

Background: The Topic in the Professional Literature

Research investigating aspects of the affective domain by Lambert et al (1961), Pimsleur et al (1962, 1964), Kelly (1965), Savignon (1972), and Brewster (1972) primarily focused on the issues of motivation in foreign language learners and their attitudes towards members of the target language community. The topic of anxiety as specifically related to foreign language study has been studied; however, the research results have been mixed. In *Toward a Philosophy of Second Language Learning and Teaching*, Chastain (1980) laments the "lack of consistent research evidence" (p. 23) on the role of anxiety, personality (e.g., reserved versus outgoing personality types), and creativity in the foreign language classroom.

Scovel (1978) provides a comprehensive review of anxiety research in foreign language learning in the 70s and addresses the issue of seemingly contradictory research results in his article "The Effect of Affect on Foreign Language Learning: A Review of the Anxiety Research." He points out that studies by Swain and Burnaby (1976), Tucker, Hamayan, and Genesee (1976), Chastain (1975), Backman (1976), and Kleinmann (1977) reveal incomplete and complete correlations between anxiety and measures of language proficiency. For example, in their research with English-speaking French immersion children, Swain and Burnaby found a negative correlation between anxiety and one measure of the children's proficiency in French; curiously, there were no other significant correlations with any of the other proficiency measures used. The work by Tucker et al revealed that anxiety correlated with only one of four measures of French proficiency. Backman found that her study subjects, the two worst Spanish-speaking ESL students, received, respectively, the highest and the lowest score on an anxiety measure. Chastain's research showed the negative and positive effects of test anxiety. In the former case (a correlational analysis), there was a significant negative correlation between test anxiety and final course grade for university students in a beginning French class using the audio-lingual method. In the latter case (a regression analysis), test anxiety correlated positively with the final course grade for university students in a beginning Spanish class using the "regular" method. Here, test anxiety constituted a significant predictor factor for the final course grade in Spanish.

In his article, Scovel emphasizes the important distinction made by Kleinmann between "facilitating" and "debilitating" anxiety (p. 105 in Kleinmann) and insists that making this distinction can clarify ambiguous experimental results. Hypothesizing that a foreigner learning English would avoid most frequently those English structures (e.g., infinitive complements, direct object pronouns, the passive voice, etc.) which contrasted most with the foreigner's native language structures, Kleinmann studied the English output of Arabic and Spanish students using a variety of tests, ultimately confirming his hypothesis. He also hypothesized that facilitating anxiety would encourage a learner to use those English structures most frequently avoided by members of the learner's native language group. Kleinmann confirmed this second, hypothesis, finding that Arabic and Spanish students who received high scores on measures of facilitating anxiety (e.g., "Nervousness while using English helps me do better") used more complicated English structures than their native peers.

In the 80s, Young (1986) has investigated the relationship between anxiety and foreign language oral proficiency ratings, finding significant negative correlations between anxiety and the *ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview* (*ACTFL OPI*, to be distinguished from the *Interagency Language Roundtable OPI*). However, the correlations were no longer significant after the effects of foreign language ability were taken into account. As Young explains: "(O)nce the effect of an individual's language proficiency was accounted for, oral performance no longer decreased as anxiety increased" (p. 439). Steinberg and Horwitz (1986) examined the effect of induced anxiety on the content of oral descriptions in the target language about stimulus pictures. The researchers found that subjects involved in a treatment especially designed to increase their anxiety by making them feel "on the spot" (as Steinberg and Horwitz put it) describe visual stimuli less interpretively, i.e, with fewer projective references to events not actually shown in the pictures, than do subjects in a non-threatening, relaxed setting.

"The Support Group for Foreign Language Learning" at the University of Texas, Austin

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) did further research in anxiety in the foreign language classroom in 1983 with beginning foreign language students at the University of Texas. After determining through a survey that a number of the students who were to start a foreign language course in the summer session of 1983 expressed interest in a "Support Group for Foreign Language Learning," they organized a series of discussion sessions which met twice weekly for the summer term. Working with two groups of fifteen students each, Horwitz et al provided information in effective learning strategies, exercises in anxiety management, and discussion on the difficulties and rewards of foreign language learning. The researchers developed an anxiety measure, the *Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale* (*FLCAS*), which was administered to the students in the third week of the semester. Results revealed that in the majority of items about foreign language anxiety (nineteen of thirty-three items), a third or more of the students indicated that they suffered from foreign language anxiety; in seven times, over one-half indicated the same reaction. Horwitz (1986) has recently made the five items from the *French Class Anxiety Scale* created by Gardner, Clement, Smythe, & Smythe (1979) generic and added them to the item pool for the *FLCAS*. Horwitz' latest results support the reliability and validity of the *FLCAS*. The project begun at DLI, San Francisco, though similar in intent, differs substantially in research format.

Purpose and Rationale for the Foreign Language Anxiety Workshop

The aim of the researchers was to determine whether the three-hour workshop would have a statistically significant effect on student attitudes, specifically, anxiety about foreign langauge study in the classroom setting. The researchers assessed the lasting effect of the workshop through an instrument created by the authors—*Survey of Attitudes Specific to the Foreign*

Language Classroom (*SASFLC*)—which was distributed two weeks after the workshop. (A panel of one statistician, one foreign language measurement expert, and one foreign language instructor well-versed in testing judged the validity of the *SASFLC*. A construct validation project is currently underway.) The research schedule was as follows:

1. Day 1: Survey 1 administration (to determine anxiety level prior to beginning the course); workshop for experimental group/registration for the control group; start of course;
2. Day 14: Survey 2 administration (to determine workshop effect);
3. Course Midpoint: Survey 3 administration;
4. Course End: Survey 4 administration. (All four surveys were identical in content; only the ordering of the items varied.)

After examining the final outcome of the statistical analyses (which are discussed in detail in "Results" below), the authors realized that the effect of the intensive foreign language course itself most likely confounded the effect of the treatment (here, the workshop). Expressed differently, the nature of the course itself, not the workshop, could be responsible for increasing or decreasing student anxiety levels. Therefore, it is difficult, if not impossible, to attempt to distinguish the effect of the workshop from the effect of the course on the learner's anxiety level. To be able to more accurately determine workshop effect, the workshop should be given, as in the DLI study, before the course begins; nevertheless, Survey 2 should also be distributed before the start of the course so as to eliminate course effect as a confounding variable. The authors could not arrange this, however, due to administrative obstacles.

As the researchers were also interested in examining any changes in anxiety level throughout the six, eight, and ten-month intensive course, they administered the *SASFLC* at course midpoint and at course end.

Method

Subjects

The subjects are briefly described in the "Introduction" above. The majority are high-school graduates between 18 and 21 years of age who have scored well in the *Defense Language Aptitude Battery* (*DLAB*), a standardized measure of aptitude for foreign language learning. After arrival at DLI, the subjects in each language group were then divided into an experimental group (with workshop) and a control group (without workshop) via randomized selection. One-hundred seventy-nine students participated in the project (20-Spanish, 65-Russian, 66-German, 28-Korean) from five subsequent inputs of students to DLI in April, May, July, August, and September 1987. Subjects from all four languages were equally distributed by language in both the experimental and control groups. Students fluent in a foreign language or with more than one college semester of foreign language were eliminated from the study. In order to check for homogeneity between the experimental and the control groups regarding aptitude for foreign language learning, a t test was performed using the subjects' scores from the *DLAB*. The results of the t test showed no significant differences in the pooled *DLAB* scores between the experimental and the control group (t = .499, p = .6183). (See Table 1.)

Table 1. Averages For Each Dependent Variable, By Treatment

	With Workshop	Without Workshop	
DLAB Scores	103.2 (99)	102.3 (78)	t = .499 p = .6183
Dependent Variables			
Survey 1	37.4 (100)	37.9 (79)	t = .4099 p = .6824
Survey 2	37.1 (98)	36.9 (75)	t = .1697 p = .8655
Survey 3	41.7 (23)	40.4 (16)	t = .4165 p = .6794

NOTE: The number in parentheses is the sample size.

In order to check further for homogeneity between the experimental and the control groups, a t test was performed using the subjects' responses in Survey 1 in order to assess student anxiety levels about foreign language study in the classroom prior to the workshop and the start of the course.

The results revealed no significant differences between the experimental and the control groups (t = .4099, p = .6824). (See Table 1.)

Materials

The materials described in the introduction were piloted with three different groups of students in three workshops before drafting the final version of the survey and exercises. (Copies of the materials are available from the authors upon request.)

Procedures

After arrival at DLI, San Francisco, each group of students was first divided by language group and then randomly assigned to either the experimental or control group. Both groups took the first survey after learning from researchers that:

1. the aim of the survey was to better the existing teaching/learning program at DLI;
2. strict confidentiality would be maintained as only the two researchers and a statistician would see their answers;
3. honesty in answering was extremely important.

The experimental group then participated in the three-hour workshop; the control group completed the military registration process for new students. The students in the experimental group were informed that the workshop was a routine activity organized for incoming students. Immediately after the workshop, all the students in both groups began the intensive foreign language course in their respective language.

Two weeks after the workshop, after two full weeks of course work, the students in both groups took the Survey 2. At midpoint in the course and at the end of the course (one-month before the final comprehensive proficiency examination), students in both groups took the third and fourth surveys, respectively.

Below, the research format:

	Group 1 (experimental)	Group 2 (control)
Day 1	survey; workshop	survey
Day 14	survey	survey
Course midpoint	survey	survey
Course end	survey	survey

Concerning controlling for methodological, instructor, and time differences, as all instructors at DLI enroll and graduate from a uniform methods course that the Division of Faculty/Staff Development coordinates, it can be assumed that all instructors profess and practice a proficiency-oriented teaching philosophy aimed at maximizing communicative competence. In this sense, a basic homogeneity of methodology can be assumed. Regarding instructor and time differences, the current team-teaching system at DLI provides for the matching of one team of four or five instructors with each new language course. The team teaches the entire course which can last six, eight, or ten months according to language. Thus, it can be assumed that the instructor variable (here, defined as a team) for a given course remains constant, as does the course length according to language.

Results

The results are:

1. In terms of the treatment (here, the workshop), there were no statistically significant results between the experimental and the control group as shown in a t test performed on the results from Survey 2 ($t = .1697$, $p = .8655$). (See Table 1.)
2. In terms of the treatment (here, the workshop), there were no statistically significant results between the experimental and the control group as shown in a t test performed on the results from Survey 3 ($t = .4165$, $p = .6794$). (See Table 1.)
3. Using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, reliability analysis for internal consistency in the SASFLC was .90 for the eleven items in the survey that deal directly with foreign language anxiety.
4. Pooled percentages in Survey 1 (administered prior to the start of the workshop and the course in order to assess student anxiety levels about foreign language study in the classroom) revealed that anxiety afflicts approximately one-fourth of the students when speaking, approximately one-third when listening, and approximately one-sixth when writing and reading. (See Table 2.)
5. Pooled percentages in Survey 2 (administered two weeks

after the workshop and the start of the course in order to assess lasting workshop effects) revealed that anxiety afflicts approximately one-third to one-half of the students when speaking, approximately one-half when listening, and approximately one-fifth when writing and reading. (See Table 2.)

6. Pooled percentages in Survey 3 (administered half-way through the course) revealed a reduction in anxiety.
7. Pooled percentages in Survey 4 showed no anxiety level.

Discussion

The results reveal that the lack of statistically significant differences between the experimental (with workshop) and control (without workshop) groups in terms of the treatment could be due to the confounding effect of the course itself. Future research will schedule Survey 1, the workshop, and Survey 2 before the start of the course so as to discern more accurately workshop effect.

Although there were no significant differences between the experimental and the control groups, pooled percentages in Survey 1 reveal disconcerting levels of anxiety in incoming students prior to the start of workshop and the course itself: approximately one-third suffer from anxiety when listening and one-fourth suffer from anxiety when speaking. Pooled percentages in Survey 2 show increased anxiety in students after the start of the course: approximately one-half suffer from anxiety when listening and one-third to one-half when speaking. Regarding writing and reading, approximately one-sixth of the students feel anxiety in Survey 1 and one-fifth in Survey 2.

The decrease in anxiety in Survey 3 and the absence of anxiety in Survey 4 indicate that students are aware of a general tendency at DLI to retain students in a course once the half-way point is reached. Prior to course midpoint, students can be asked to leave a program because of low grades.

The results are consistent with findings in the study by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) in which over one-third of the students surveyed in the *FLCAS* indicated in the majority of items about foreign language anxiety (nineteen of thirty-three items) that they experienced foreign language anxiety; over one-half of the students indicated the same in seven items.

These results suggest that anxiety in the foreign language classroom is a very real issue with important consequences for the classroom, testing,

Table 2. Percentages Of Strongly Agree and Agree

	Survey 1 (Course beginning)	Survey 2 (2 wks. later)	Survey 3 (course midpoint)	Survey 4 (course end)
3. I fear making a mistake when I speak in a FL in a classroom setting.	26%	34%	19%	0%
4. I become anxious when I am being spoken to in a FL in a classroom setting.	22%	41%	18%	0%
5. I fear failing this course.	45%	56%	21%	0%
7. I become anxious when I am asked to write in a FL in a classroom setting.	14%	17%	11%	0%
9. I fear making a mistake in writing in a FL in a classroom setting.	15%	19%	8%	0%
10. I fear making a mistake in reading in a FL in a classroom setting.	17%	18%	11%	0%
11. I become anxious when I have to speak in a FL in a classroom setting.	26%	46%	26%	0%
12. I fear receiving a low final grade (D or below) in this course.	45%	53%	21%	0%
14. I fear not understanding what the teacher is saying in a FL when I am in a FL classroom.	40%	42%	26%	0%
15. I feel silly when I have to speak a FL in a classroom setting.	10%	8%	11%	0%
16. I become anxious when I have to read in a FL in a classroom setting.	15%	22%	13%	0%

and curriculum development. Further research must be done with the ultimate goal of lowering the level of debilitating anxiety that, as two research studies suggest, affects approximately one-fourth to one-half of our post-secondary students.

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4

A Sequential Approach to Teaching and Testing the Listening and Speaking Skills

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Overview

With today's emphasis on proficiency-oriented teaching in foreign language classes, many teachers have decided that their texts no longer serve their course objectives well. Many texts still in use are heavily audio-lingual in orientation and afford little opportunity for development of communicative skills in the language class. Even those newer texts which provide some context by saying "Pretend that you are Isabel giving commands to her little brother and tell him that he can't do any of the following things." are only taking a partial step toward proficiency-oriented teaching, since this drill is still a drill. Because these texts were generally developed around units of grammar rather than around personalized activities and topics, the teacher often finds the text activities and vocabulary inadequate for developing fluency for particular situations and topics. Therefore today's teachers are heavily engaged in text adaptation, omitting text exercises and replacing them with communicative activities the teachers have developed to better facilitate their students' skills development. While teachers engage in this adaptation process, however, they frequently have doubts about the best ways to accomplish their purposes, the best ways to introduce new vocabulary, and the appropriate sequencing of listening and speaking activities.

Picture-based Introduction of Material

The listening-based approaches proposed by Krashen, Terrell, Asher and others, lend themselves well to this process of adaptation. The teacher can adhere to their suggested regimen of introduction of vocabulary via pictures by collecting simple or complex pictures that illustrate the vocabulary and phrases for the desired lesson in the book and/or by preparing transparencies, posters and handouts that illustrate the vocabulary. In either case written statements about the characters, activities, and objects in the pictures can appear with the pictures. The teacher uses these statements to elaborate on the pictures as they are presented to the class, and the students have the written version as study material. For example, if leisure activities are used as the subject, pictures with statements such as these can be used: John is playing football. Mary is playing tennis. Linda is playing the guitar., etc. At this point a process crucial to this mode of teaching begins: that of utilization of comprehension checks.

Listening during the Three Phases of Questioning

Throughout the recommended sequence, the teacher utilizes three phases of questioning after each activity to extend the material for maximum comprehension practice. Phases one comprises factual questions about the content of the pictures used to introduce the vocabulary. (Who plays baseball? What does Mary play? Does Mary play baseball? Does John play tennis or baseball?) Phase two includes personalization of the material by applying the questions to the students themselves. (Who in the class plays baseball? George, what do you play? Alice, do you play baseball? Luis, do you play baseball or tennis?) As before, the required responses are brief.

Phase three incorporates comprehension checks, and these questions can either follow phase two or be interspersed within it. These are questions the teacher uses to check the students' comprehension of one another's responses. The regular use of such comprehension questions reinforces the students' listening to each other in class and thus extends their listening practice. (Who in the class plays baseball, Dan? Margie, does Alice play baseball? Luis, what does George play? Al, does Rosa play basketball or tennis?) At this point, two additional types of comprehension-check questions can be used for further extension: the paraphrase and the summary (What did Mary say? Which activity is most popular in this class?).

Six Question Types for Checking Listening

As the teacher moves through the three phases with questions for content facts, class facts, and comprehension checks, six types of questions are used repeatedly: the "who" question, the "what" question (Who plays baseball? What does Mary play?), the option question (does Mary play baseball or tennis?), the yes/no question (Does Mary play football?), the paraphrase (What did John say?), and the information summary (which activity is most popular in this class?). As noted in the examples in the previous section, the last two types are best suited to the comprehension-check phase when the teachers question students about the statements other class members have made.

Nine Formats for Daily Listening Practice

Following the introduction of material via pictures and the utilization of the three phases of listening comprehension extension as described previously, the teacher can move to a variety of other listening activities, each of which can be followed by the same three phases of listening-comprehension extension. The activities and the extension questions themselves all combine to immerse the students in a modified target-language acquisition environment in which they can listen extensively on a known topic to contextualized material. In addition, they are not pressed to early production. Instead comprehension is checked and verified constantly through the use of questions that require one-word answers or short patterned answers from the student. A modified Total Physical Response Activity (Asher, p. 74) fits well at this point. Continuing our example, the teacher says and acts out ten to twelve commands that use the leisure vocabulary while the students watch and listen (Swim. Dance. Play tennis. Play the guitar.). Then he/she repeats the commands and acts them out with the students. Next, no longer modeling, the teacher gives the commands for the students to act out alone, first in the same order as before and then in a new sequence. As the final adaptation, the teacher can ask the students to practice commanding and acting out in pairs or small groups. The class fact and listening comprehension check phases follow appropriately here.

A chart is another excellent base for a listening activity. If we use the following sample chart,

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday, etc.
Joe	baseball	tennis	guitar	television
Al	tennis	piano	reading	dancing
Ana	swimming	cooking	dancing	hiking, etc.

we can employ our three phases. First we ask many content questions about the persons listed. (Does Joe play tennis on Wednesday? On Thursday does Al play tennis or watch television? What does Ana do on Tuesdays? Who cooks? etc.) We then follow these questions with class-fact and comprehension-check questions. Finally the chart can be used by the students in pairs to repeat the initial questioning phase with each other whenever the teacher feels they are ready to do this, on the same day or another.

True-false statements are another format readily adaptable to this sequence. The teacher can use the above chart again as a basis for true-false listening comprehension statements, or he/she can prepare an original set (We play tennis in the Spanish class. We watch television on weekends., etc.) In addition the teacher can have students write similar true-false statements and use their creations in a comprehension activity. Finally, he/she can once again end the activity with class-fact and comprehension-check questions.

The teacher can use the chart yet another time as the basis for a multiple-choice activity. (On Monday Ana ____. a. cooks, b. swins, or c. reads.) Next the teacher can survey student preferences via a simple multiple-choice activity where students raise their hands to respond. (On Saturdays I a. sleep, b. dance, c. play the piano.) This format, too, can be followed with class-fact and comprehension questions.

Asking students to label what they hear as possible/impossible, probable/improbable, fun/boring, etc., is another format popular in new textbooks that fits well in this sequence. (Pete plays baseball on the moon.) Following the reading aloud of ten or so such statements by the teacher with appropriate responses by the students, the teacher can move to the same class-fact and comprehension-check questions to wrap up the activity.

A scanning activity can also incorporate listening comprehension. Using a short paragraph in the target language on the topic (leisure activities in this case) instead of the chart shown earlier, the teacher asks the students content questions about the passage; and the students scan the passage to find short answers to give to those questions that they comprehend. Class-fact and comprehension-check questions can follow.

Many of the above listening comprehension activities are based on the concrete (pictures, charts, etc.), a very desirable characteristic for listening activities. As noted, some of the activities lend themselves to structured speaking practice as well after the listening comprehension portion has been successfully completed. In addition, use of the series of formats that follows will also lead the students to structured speaking practice and then to less-structures speaking practice.

Ten Speaking Formats of Graduated Difficulty

The speaking formats that follow are interactive in nature, lending themselves to student-to-student interaction or to teacher-to-student interaction. The series format is essentially a limited sentence-builder. Students are presented columns of words to use in making statements true for themselves. Column 1 can contain time words (the days of the week, adverbs such as first, later, then, etc.), and column 2 can contain the leisure activity verbs or other material. The students then are to make two or three statements about what they typically do. As an option for the series, the teacher can use the chart shown earlier to have the students make series statements (On Monday Ana swims, and on Tuesday she cooks.) for the other students to respond to as true or false. The series can also be followed with additional personalized questions and comprehension checks of the listeners.

Another variation of the series or sequence calls for the teacher to make a series of statements for the students to put in a logical order (I put my guitar away. I practice for an hour. I find my guitar.) Then the students can be asked to follow suit and create such sequences themselves for others to resequence. This variation, too, can be followed by personalized questions and comprehension checks.

Another variation of the sentence builder can be used in the speaking portion of the sequence. One column is devoted to adverbs/times, another to places, another to companions, and another to leisure-activity-related verbs. The students then use the items to make statements that are true for them (Frequently I dance at parties with my friends.). Comprehension-check questions can be appropriately integrated into this activity.

Interviews are a versatile component in the sequence. Students can be given target-language questions to use to interview their classmates (or a single partner), or they can be given only English cues (Find out what sport your partner plays, what he/she does on Saturday, etc.) if the teacher wishes the speaking task to be more challenging. Interviews should always be followed by student reports as a wrap-up, and the teacher should inject comprehension questions for the students listening to the brief reports.

Situation roleplays are very difficult but very appropriate components of the sequence. They are stated in such a way that two roles are evident (You call your friend to invite him/her to go hiking on Saturday. He/she doesn't like hiking much, but you convince him/her to go. You also agree on a time, meeting place, and items to take along). Students may be given incomplete target-language versions of the conversation to use as a starter, or they may be given only the English cue-description. After preparation and during performances by students, the teacher injects the ever-important comprehension questions.

Problem-solving activities are probably the most difficult of all the formats if the students are to conduct their problem-solving deliberations completely in the target language. If students are given a topic such as "Students should or should not be allowed to have activities on Thursday nights." to discuss for a brief time, they can then be asked to report their conclusions and reasons, with the teacher again interspersing comprehension questions.

In addition to the interactive speaking sequence, the teacher may wish to inject one or two solo speaking formats. In these activities each student prepares his/her own material to say alone, without his/her performance being dependent on comprehending others. The two formats that follow are generally easier for students than interviews, roleplays, and problem-solving, which are the less-structures speaking formats.

Solo Speaking Formats

Completions are useful for getting students to talk briefly. When given starters such as "On Sunday mornings I ____________________." or "After school I ______________." they can comment on an element of personal experience using a supportive pattern. The starters can be provided on the board, on transparencies, or on handouts; and the students' statements should, as always, be followed by the teacher's comprehension questions.

Students may also be asked to give individual oral presentations about given pictures or topics (How you spend your weekends in December, for example). Students are asked to include a minimum number of words or statements, and after each presentation the teacher asks the other students questions about what the reporter has just said.

The Link to Reading, Writing, Grammar and Testing Speaking

As always, listening scripts can become reading materials, and speaking formats can be used to generate writing. The charts, completions, situations and interview reports all lend themselves well to writing and thus to reinforcement. In addition, the many personalized questions that have been referred to would make appropriate journal topics for brief writing activities at the beginning of classes or as homework.

While the activities described are by no means grammar-focused, using them can facilitate the students' acquisition of grammatical structures through indirect means as the students hear and use the grammatical forms. Some patterns or forms can be put on the board during activities to serve as templates to assist the students as they listen and speak. However, these activities are not intended to focus on grammar, but rather on communication.

All the preceding speaking activities lend themselves well to use as speaking tests. The very same charts, pictures, interview cues, situation descriptions for roleplays and sentence starters for completion can be the pool of material for a proficiency-oriented achievement test of speaking that can be administered and scored time-efficiently, even in the normal overpopulated classroom. By eliminating him or herself from an active role in the oral testing, the teacher can hear and grade in an hour approximately twelve pairs of students who perform with each other. The average class of thirty can be tested in about one and one-half classes.

Pairs of students draw the required number of question, roleplays, etc., from the pool and perform for the teacher, who uses a weighted five-to-six criteria rating form to assign a score to each student.

Name: Class:
Date: Score:

	A+	A	B	C	D	F
Communication	40	37	34	31	28	25
Accuracy	20	18	16	14	12	10
Fluency	10	9	8	7	6	5
Vocabulary	20	18	16	14	12	10
Pronunciation	10	9	8	7	6	5

In the testing program of this type established at her institution by the author over six years ago, the scale above is used to rate students on a sample of six utterances each. Inasmuch as all students prepare for the test the complete pool of speaking activities that the class has used, a small sample is more likely to be representative of potential performance on a larger sample.

Predicted Outcomes

Informal observation of students in the program described herein suggests two major trends. First more students may achieve a broader base of skills and knowledge in the target language. By focusing less directly on grammar and more on communication, the author's students perform better in the language and still have a command of grammar similar to the level of command they had with previous more grammatically oriented programs. The better students use and understand the language fairly well (while still making the expected errors), a skills level they did not typically attain previously.

The more average students also use the language fairly well, but they still can't handle grammatical terminology very well, just as previously. The difference now is that all these students have had the opportunity to participate in a relatively non-stressful sequenced approach to developing their listening and speaking skills, and therefore in their communicative ability and vocabulary acquisition when compared informally to previous students in previous programs are dramatically better.

The second trend relates to student motivation and participation. Even though the teacher may wonder how the numerous personalized questions and comprehension checks can continue to be of interest to students, the author's experience with classes suggests that students are fascinated by nothing so much as by one another. They do listen, remember, and respond in class as the comprehension checks on what one another have said or conducted. The sequence of pictures to extensive listening to structured and less-structured speaking appears to make second language acquisition more manageable for students as well, adding yet another reason why we can predict more postive outcomes and encourage the utilization of the sequence described here.

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5

Foreign Language Reading:

Linguistic, Cognitive, and Affective Factors Which Influence Comprehension

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Many students learning a foreign language (FL) experience some degree of frustration when they attempt to comprehend any but the simplest FL texts. This is certainly not surprising, for these students are attempting to map meaning onto structures with which they are not wholly familiar. Not only is their FL vocabulary smaller than their native language (NL) vocabulary, but also the way in which words are put together may often seem strange and illogical. Interference from the native language is common and has been shown to mislead readers when they read FL texts (Cowan, 1976; Hatch, 1974; Muchisky, 1983). Furthermore, background knowledge may be deficient: knowledge of the FL culture, knowledge of FL textual conventions, and knowledge of differences in rhetorical organization of information have been shown to be critically important to the comprehension of FL reading materials (Carrell, 1983a,b; Hudson, 1982; Johnson, 1982; Urquhart, 1984; Wilson, 1973).

But students' difficulties in reading in a foreign language are not only a matter of insufficient language skill or background knowledge. FL reading involves cognitive demands beyond those present in native language reading (Yorio, 1971). Attention and memory resources are often needed in lower order, word recognition processes, thereby reducing their availability to higher order, interpretive processes. Short term memory is also taxed due to the reader's unfamiliarity with many words and structures. Because of limitations in human attention and memory processing capacity (McLaughlin, Rossman, McLeod, 1983), these additional cognitive demands may account for the observation that good NL readers are often not able to apply their reading skills to the foreign language text (Clarke, 1980).

Greater understanding of how students go about making sense of foreign language texts is needed if we are to provide effective reading instruction programs within the foreign language curriculum. In the pages that follow, an interpretation of the processes involved in FL reading will be developed, based on relevant research.

Universal Process Hypothesis

Goodman (1970, 1981, 1985) has hypothesized that the basic process of reading is the same in all languages, involving the formation, testing, modification, and confirmation of hypotheses based on both textual clues and the reader's background knowledge. This view is supported by empirical studies carried out in various languages (e.g., Barrera, 1981; Czicko, 1976; Genessee, 1979; Mott, 1981; Rigg, 1977). This "reading universals" stance would seem to suggest that FL reading involves the transfer and application of established NL reading skills to FL texts, making native language reading skills the prime determining factor in successful FL reading.

Recent research indicates, however, that (1) reading may actually involve different perceptual and learning strategies in different languages (Tzeng and Hung, 1981; Taylor and Taylor, 1983), and (2) FL readers cannot always effectively transfer their native language reading skills to the second language (Clarke, 1979; Elley and Mangubhai, 1983). It appears that linguistic factors *as well as* native language reading skill development are critically important to success in FL reading.

Differences in NL and FL Reading

Linguistic factors

The most obvious and essential differences between reading in ones native language and reading in a foreign language is that the *code* one is dealing with is entirely different. The writing system, lexicon, syntax, and semantic relations of the foreign language may differ greatly from those of the native language, and even in the case of closely related languages it may take a considerable amount of time and study for FL readers to develop the same sense of *familiarity* with the code that they enjoy when reading in their native language.

Understanding relational meaning at the phrase, sentence, and discourse levels is a second area in which the FL reader will likely experience linguistic difficulty. For example, in French, the position of an adjective can determine its meaning: *ma propre chemise* refers to "my own shirt," whereas *ma chemise propre* refers to "my clean shirt." In English, certain words play different grammatical and semantic roles depending on their position within a phrase. This is what distinguishes a Venetian blind from a blind Venetian, or a Maltese cross from a cross Maltese. Similarly, a sentence's semantic environment can influence how it is interpreted. The meaning of "I married my sister yesterday" may seem scandalously unambiguous as it stands alone, but when it is followed by "My parishioners and I were sorry to see her leave town, but we wished her great joy in her new life" it may take on an entirely different, yet no less reasonable meaning. Because reading depends upon not only lexical but also relational meaning, it is not surprising that so many FL students experience frustration when they stare at a page of FL text replete with penciled-in glosses and are unable to decipher its meaning. Their reading is reduced to word by word analysis, taxing both memory and patience.

A third problematic area for the FL reader is the way in which information is organized in FL discourse. Research has demonstrated the importance of textual organization to recall of information in NL reading (Kintsch and van Dijk, 1978; Meyer, 1975; Rumelhart 1977) and there is evidence that it is also a significant factor in FL reading (Carrell, 1981; Urquhart, 1984).

A fourth linguistic consideration is the influence of the native language on FL reading. While this influence often facilitates comprehension when the reader encounters words, structures, or expressions that have similar equivalents in the native language, several studies suggest that the native language can sometimes interfere with FL processing at the phonological, syntactic, and semantic levels (Cowan, 1976; Hatch, 1974; Muchisky, 1983; Yorio, 1971).

It appears that the learner's proficiency in the foreign language is clearly related to successful FL reading. There is some evidence to suggest, however, that language proficiency alone does not account for many of the difficulties experienced by FL readers. In the following section we will briefly consider some of the cognitive factors involved in the reading process which may make FL reading difficult.

Cognitive Factors

Reading in any language is a cognitively demanding process, involving the coordination of attention, memory, perceptual processes, and comprehension processes. All readers, whether in a native or non-native language, must divide their available mental energy among at least five processes: (1) the visual processing of surface features of the text, (2) the selection of cues from this input, and the storage of cues in working memory, (3) the anticipation of future cues (based on stored cues and background knowledge), (4) the testing of predictions against subsequent input, and (5) the storage of generated ideas and information in long term memory. For the mature, fluent, native language reader these processes generally occur automatically. Reading in a foreign language, however, places additional demands on all of these components, making text processing and comprehension less efficient.

It has been shown that FL readers often process texts in a "bottom-up" manner, relying heavily on surface structure features of texts in their attemps to piece together the author's intended meaning (Czicko, 1980; Hatch, 1974; Henning, 1973; McLeod and McLaughlin, 1986; Muchisky, 1983). There is also some evidence to support the hypothesis that FL reading places a greater load on mental processing than does NL reading, and that conscious attention is required to process much of the FL visual input (Bruder and Henderson, 1986; Edfeldt, 1960; Faaborg-Anderson and Edfeldt, 1958; Oller and Tullius, 1973).

Research in information processing supports a "time sharing" model of processing (Lesgold and Perfetti, 1978) in which executives schemes (which establish goals and task organization) determine what input receives attentional focus and what input remains on the periphery of attention (McLaughlin, et al., 1983). Commitment of attention to one operation reduces the availability of attention to the performance of any other operation (Norman and Bobrow, 1975; Posner and Snyder, 1975). Therefore if excessive attention is focussed on word recognition, comprehension may suffer due to a deficiency in available mental resources. Britton et al. (1978) found that in skilled readers the perceptual stage of processing does not use cognitive capacity, but that the "elaborative" processes involved in comprehension do. This suggests a hierarchical organization of reading processes in terms of their relative cognitive demands, with analysis, synthesis, and inference requiring the most mental energy and word recognition the least. This hierarchy is often upset in the case of the FL reader, however, because word recognition processes require much greater attention until they become automatized.

Because the FL reader tends to rely on bottom-up processing (and because much of the visual input he or she perceives is relatively or even completely unfamiliar), the "chunking" or combining strategies which are used automatically in the native language may be rendered inoperable when reading FL texts. When chunking is impeded, less information can be stored at one time in short term memory. When the amount of information which can be stored simultaneously is reduced, there is a restriction of the amount of linguistic data which can be analyzed at once—resulting in less efficient use of redundancy and contextual cues. For example, while a native French speaker might likely analyze *Est-ce qu'il a eu tort*? ("Was he wrong?") as two chunked units "*Est-ce que*" (interrogative marker) and "*il a eu tort*" (proposition), the inexperienced FL reader is likely to chunk into smaller, lexical units ("*Est*" "*ce*" "*que*" "*il*" "*a*" "*eu*" "*tort*") which consists of seven elements. This strategy not only loads short term memory to near-capacity (Miller, 1956), but also works against comprehension since separate semantic analysis of these seven items will not yield the author's intended meaning: the words simply do not make sense when treated as discrete units. This explains the common complaint of beginning FL readers that they "know all the words" but still fail to make sense of a text. Longer sentences than the example cited above would simply not "fit" in short term memory unless chunking of words into phrase units took place. Furthermore, there is evidence that higher order comprehension processes can be impeded by inefficient word access (Lesgold and Perfetti, 1978). That is to say, if excess mental energy is expended in word recognition, there is little or none left for higher order processing and for storage of input in semantically "cued" form. Thus slow phonological processing may reduce the FL reader's ability to comprehend texts, particularly those in which coherence depends upon indirect or inferred antecedence relationships. (Lesgold and Perfetti, 1978:334).

Because the total amount of mental energy available at a given time is limited, the FL reader's concentration on retaining past cues may hamper his ability to make predictions. Likewise, if the reader attempts to predict what lies ahead in the text, past cues may be forgotten. Under these circumstances the hypothesis testing process which Goodman (1970) proposes as a "universal" characteristic of reading operates with less than optimal efficiency if it operates at all. This inefficiency of processing, along with the student's relative lack of familiarity with the FL culture, can often create a sense of frustration, further impeding comprehension. The effect of such frustration as well as other affective factors on the FL reader will be discussed briefly below.

Affective Factors

While all aspects of reading are highly influenced by affective factors such as attitudes, interests, and values (Mathewson, 1976, 1985; Ruddell, 1974; Ruddell and Speaker, 1985), it is the goal-setting, process-directing metacognitive component which is particularly sensitive to such factors as anxiety, self-confidence, and motivation. Anxiety may be experienced when the reader is pressed to perform in a limited period of time, when he must perform a task in a social group (e.g., reading aloud to the class), or when he "must" comprehend material which he perceives to be too difficult (the predicament of many FL readers). Anxiety may disrupt the normal functioning of the metacognitive component by impeding both the establishment and the implementation of goals, effectively paralyzing the reader's "control center." As Posner and Snyder (1975) point out, information which is charged with emotional significance may intrude upon information being consciously processed. Krashen (1981) discusses the phenomenon in terms of what he calls the "affective filter." When the affective filter is "raised" through anxiety or low self-confidence, input will not be processed at a deep level, and in turn, FL text comprehension will be reduced.

Self-confidence is critical to effective reading in that it determines the reader's willingness to take risks. Reading that is conceptually-driven and meaning-centered demands that the reader take risks, for not *all* of the visual information available in a text is thoroughly processed. Rather, visual information is sampled judiciously, providing just enough cues to confirm predictions and elaborate the reader's text representations. Furthermore, information which is implicit in a text (often the most important information) can only be accessed through inference based on given information and the reader's prior knowledge. Because the FL reader is often insecure about the extent and accuracy of his knowledge of the FL code, the FL culture, and the text itself, the risk of making inferences is often too great. Thus a low level of self-confidence may limit the reader in (1) the goals he sets (e.g., literal comprehension only) and (2) his flexibility in utilizing a variety of strategies. Carrell's (1983c) finding that even advanced ESL students were often unable to grasp more than the literal meaning of a text may indicate students' unwillingness to take chances (due to the unfamiliarity of the topic) as well as insufficient background knowledge. In other words, students may *assume* that they have insufficient background knowledge as a result of low self-confidence and thus may hesitate to make guesses and inferences. In the case of the FL reader this state of affairs may produce a vicious circle of poor comprehension and frustration which may result in termination of FL study (See Figure 1).

Motivation is central to the metacognitive component. When it is absent, limited goals will be established, resulting in limited comprehension. Equally important, though often overlooked, is the fact that motivation affects the level of mental energy available to the reader (Mathewson, 1976; Ruddell and Speaker, 1985). The availability of mental energy is a particularly critical variable in FL reading, due to the high demands placed on cognitive resources by all levels of processing. Mathewson (1976) points out that motivation is not a static, fixed element in the reading process; rather, it may fluctuate during reading according to the reader's understanding and

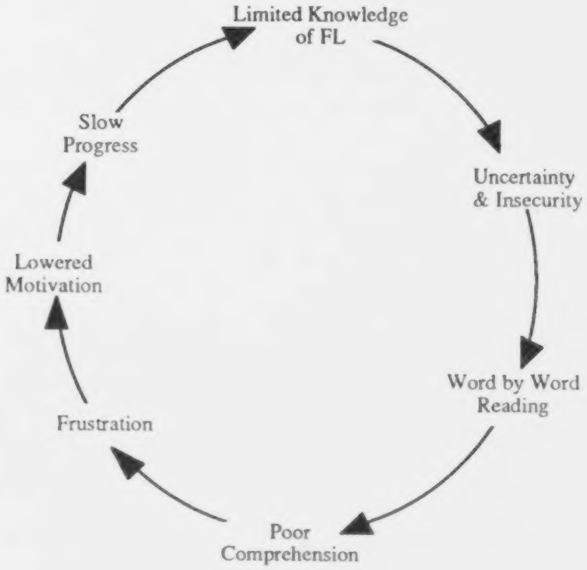
Limited Knowledge of FL
Uncertainty & Insecurity
Word by Word Reading
Poor Comprehension
Frustration
Lowered Motivation
Slow Progress

Figure 1

acceptance of what is read. If the content of the reading material is consistent with one's prior attitudes, beliefs, values, and motives then a favorable modification of one's attitude *toward reading* will occur. Corresponding to this modification is a continuation of attentional focus and optimal comprehension. If, however, there is a mismatch between the presented attitudes, beliefs, values and motives and those of the reader a negative reading attitude will develop, with a corresponding reduction in attention and comprehension.

Implications for Practice

As we have seen, FL readers tend to be most attentive to the surface structure of FL texts, and because their word recognition skills do not seem to be automatized until advanced levels of study, they are often not able to allocate sufficient cognitive resources to carry out higher-level interpretive processes effectively. As a result, comprehension is less than optimal. Because the FL reader continually faces unknown lexical items and syntactic structures, however, mere "practice" may only bring frustration rather than facilitate automatization of recognition skills—particularly if the learner is unable to comprehend what he or she is reading. As Goodman has pointed out, readers will not continue reading if there is no "payoff" in terms of comprehension (1976, p. 484).

What does the foregoing discussion suggest for the teaching of FL reading? First, students may benefit from direct instruction in specific strategies designed to assist them in (1) word recognition, (2) inferring the meaning of unknown words and (3) synthesizing meaning in larger segments of text. Such strategies, if routinized, may allow lower-level processes which originally required large amounts of conscious attention to operate more efficiently. If cognitive resources are released from surface-level processes such as word recognition, more mental energy is made available for meaning-processing. Several studies (e.g., Kern, 1987; Nemoianu 1987) have shown that students trained in the use of metalinguistic and metacognitive strategies show considerable improvement in their ability to infer meanings of unknown words and in their general comprehension of FL texts. Students should also be shown how to use reading strategies flexibly and in combinations (see Kern, 1987).

Second, given that phonological encoding of FL texts generally requires a considerable amount of mental energy, reading aloud in class is probably best avoided, except when the goal is strictly pronunciation practice and not comprehension (Bernhardt, 1983).

Third, because students who read word by word are often unable to capture the sense of a sentence, teachers should encourage students to think about the global meaning of what they read, rather than focusing excessively on the lexical and syntactic details of a text. Recommended activities are those which focus on (1) the development of reading speed, (2) the identification of main ideas, (3) the identification of cohesion and discourse relationships, and (4) the formation of predictions and hypotheses (e.g., the Directed Reading-Thinking Activity, Stauffer, 1969, Tierney et al., 1985).

Fourth, the importance of background knowledge suggests the use of pre-reading exercises designed to "prime" students for what they are about to read. Several research studies (e.g., Hudson, 1982; Lee, 1986) have demonstrated that such activities can significantly improve readers' comprehension of FL texts.

Fifth, because planning and goal-setting are important to reading comprehension, students should be encouraged to read *purposefully*. They may be provided a purpose by the teacher, such as answering a specific question raised in class discussion, or they may choose their own personal goals. In either case, students need to be flexible in their approach to FL texts: they may need to skim for a gist, scan for a specific detail, read for thorough comprehension, or read for a stylistic analysis. Because reading purposes differ with types of texts, readings should be varied with regard to genre, style, content, and lexical/semantic difficulty. The teacher can adjust the demands of a task according to the level of difficulty and the content characteristics of each passage.

In sum, we have seen that linguistic, cognitive, and affective factors interact in complex ways to influence FL reading comprehension. The sheer complexity of the reading process suggests the need for a broad-based, multisided approach to reading instruction. No single instructional technique is likely to magically transform students into fluent FL readers. At the least, however, the superior reading instruction program will recognize the importance of vocabulary as well as syntax (Barnett, 1986), will attempt to develop both bottom-up (e.g., decoding, word analysis) *and* top-down (e.g., inferencing, gisting) processing strategies, will acknowledge the importance of students' background knowledge, attitudes, and motivation, and will familiarize students with a variety of *types* of texts at varying levels of difficulty. Most importantly, the ideal FL reading instruction program will accurately assess and address the specific needs of the particular students whom it serves. This requires that teachers take an active role in diagnosing the reading behaviors of their students, and formulating specific instructional goals, objectives, and activities based on their understanding of the reading process.

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6

Writing Across the (Foreign Language) Curriculum

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Writing in the foreign language classroom! What images does this evoke? Stacks of papers put off until the students have long since forgotten why and what they wrote? Irrelevant topics treated in "fractured French", curious transliterations from English that are often understandable only when retranslated into English, a discouraging sea of red ink and a grade that is difficult to explain to a disgruntled student? No wonder that writing is, of the four language skills, the most neglected in today's classroom. How much more rewarding, in these days of oral proficiency emphasis, to interview our students and evaluate their speaking skills. But it is not only because we shy away from all the grading and feel insecure about evaluating written work that we do so little of it.

Methodological trends are also responsible for the relative neglect of writing in the foreign language classroom. When the audio-lingual approach displaced grammar-translation, writing activities largely disappeared. More recently, the ACTFL Guidelines have helped restore writing to its proper place as one of the four skills, and new texts pay greater attention to it than ever before.

The "writing across the curriculum" movement provided considerable impetus for this change. Traditionally, the teaching of writing took place in English departments, or rather in the "composition" classes forced upon freshmen. There students had to write essays on topics that often seemed irrelevant. Having survived these compulsory exercises, students rarely had to write again. If their major field required writing, skills were often inadequate, due to lack of practice as much as to insufficient training. In the 1970's, however, the place of writing in the curriculum was reexamined and this skill began to be seen as an integral part of education. As Elaine Maimon of Beaver College, one of the leading figures in the writing across the curriculum movement, states, writing is a "way to learn, not merely a means of communicating to others what has already been mastered. It is a critical tool of invention and discovery central to all disciplines" (Smith, p. 13).

The purposes of writing in the foreign language classroom are not fundamentally different from those in other disciplines, even if the level is more basic. Writing is a form of learning and serves to reinforce other skills. In a biology class, students prepare laboratory reports describing experiments; in French they write to demonstrate command of vocabulary and structural forms. At the most elementary level, writing is used daily in language classes for homework exercises, quizzes, boardwork, reports, etc. Students put pen to paper to practice spelling and as a reinforcement technique for new verb forms and vocabulary words. Even at this level, however, students are able to use their writing to communicate in the target language. They can, for example, write lists, fill out forms, complete questionnaires, relate phone messages, and do a variety of other tasks that require basically a writing down of memorized material.

As students progress and begin to create with the language orally (the move from mechanical to meaningful to communicative activities in the classroom), they should be pushed to take more risks in their written work, as well. A second-semester French student *is* capable of reaching an intermediate level of proficiency in writing if given enough practice. However, a stumbling block comes in the intermediate courses for the majority of language students. They seem to "fossilize" in production of written French. There is often little difference between the compositions of end-of-semester elementary students and mid-semester intermediate students. A similar plateau occurs in oral proficiency. Once students can take care of basic needs, they continue to build on spoken French by adding "street French" vocabulary or slang and idiomatic expressions. The accuracy level remains low and speech patterns simple.

At this point in the foreign language curriculum, the interrelationship of the four skills takes on a new significance. Reading advanced texts introduces students to a more polished French and encourages them to pattern their own writing on what has been assimilated. Similarly, greater skill in writing will be reflected in more risk-taking in speaking as well as increased comprehension of native speech.

Until recently, the writing process has been largely ignored in favor of the finished product. The teaching of writing was often seen as identical with the teaching of editing. A shift in focus has raised the question: What does a writer do to produce texts? One helpful pattern has been established by Stephen N. Tchudi (pp. 35–50):

1. Preparing to write.
2. Organizing to write.
3. Writing.
4. Revising content and organization.

(Here the process may become circular, since the writer may go back to one of the prewriting stages and start over.)

5. Proofreading for accuracy.
6. Presenting the text.

What are the implications of the "process approach" for elementary and intermediate language programs? Research has shown that the more direction students receive in a writing assignment, the more successful the outcome, for writer and reader alike. The process of writing needs to be taught, in French as well as in English. Claire Gaudiani states that "effective second language writing practice seems to necessitate more assiduous guidance by teachers than native language composition does" (p. 38). The first step for the foreign language teacher is selecting a topic appropriate to the linguistic level of the student. Then follow a variety of intermediate steps to guide the student toward a finished piece of writing. Our students only rarely do "research" but the usual language class activities such as learning vocabulary, listening to tapes, looking at videos, reading cultural or literary materials, practicing conversation skills in groups can all be prewriting exercises when followed by a related assignment which either reinforces or expands the other activities. Organizing and focusing are fairly easy since assignments are short and linguistic skills restrict expression, but even the simplest of sentences must be logically sequenced.

Writing is improved when students prepare a series of drafts, with feedback (from peers or teacher) concerning content, not just grammar, preceding each revision. Peer-editing (Gaudiani, pp. 13–15) can be effective at this stage, encouraging students to be responsible for each other, allowing them to share ideas, and teaching them to read critically. This last point is especially difficult, since students often do not recognize mistakes. In the foreign language class, revision often is synonymous with proofreading, although presentation and organization of ideas should not be overlooked. The final product can serve as an impetus to skill development in other areas when students read or listen to each other's writing, and react. The process approach to writing is ideally suited to foreign language classes since listening, speaking and reading can be integrated so naturally with it. Lest its length and complexity deter teachers once again from using more writing in the beginning/intermediate sequence, not all assignments need to be taken through all stages. Many can begin and end in the classroom, and some out-of-class writing, such as journals, should not be taken through the process if students are to write what they really think.

How is the teacher to decide which topics are appropriate and how can we use them to improve proficiency? Most of us base our choices strictly on lexical and grammatical skills. Beginning students should not write on topics for which they do not have the necessary vocabulary, since using a dictionary can be hazardous to their health! However, it is appropriate to teach intermediate students dictionary skills and to encourage the acquisition of a personal vocabulary. Students' control of grammatical structures must also be taken into consideration. They cannot hypothesize when they have learned neither the conditional nor the subjunctive, but this sort of concern is only a beginning. If teachers want writing that is lively and not just correct, topics should be interesting to students. For example, describing an ideal husband or wife will generate better prose than portraying an ideal hotel room.

The audience for and the purpose of a writing assignment should be clearly indicated. If students always write only for the teacher, they have no incentive to vary their prose. Students can write for themselves (lists of chores, journals), for the teacher, classmates, friends, and for mythical readers. Writing assignments are also more meaningful if they grow out of a need, even a fictional one, such as preparing a description of oneself so that one can be recognized by a stranger. Thus, the written word can serve to communicate real information.

Careful sequencing of topics, avoiding novice or intermediate-low activities for students who should be more sophisticated, will also help develop proficiency. Just as reading texts are sequenced, going from practical, basic information, through description and simple narration, to more abstract prose, so writing assignments should move from lists, through description and narration to hypothesizing. Since most students will only use more difficult structures if they have a reason to do so, writing assignments should gradually increase in difficulty, challenging students to expand their skills. Once students have tried a new structure to express a more complex idea on paper, they may find it becoming a part of their spoken language.

Appendix A lists a series of topics prepared according to the ACTFL Guidelines. The range of writing activities increases as the levels go up, since students have greater control of the language. In many cases, a writing assignment on the novice level can be a pre-writing exercise (oral or written) on the intermediate level, and depending on expectations, an intermediate-low activity can be expanded to become more challenging for more proficient students. The Guidelines are pragmatic and present the writing skill in its most functional aspects. However, the list includes suggestions for creative writing activities at every level as well.

A detailed description of one topic on each level follows, in order to illustrate how such activities can be used effectively in the classroom. Certain steps provide opportunities for practice of the other skills. It is especially important for language students to recognize the interrelationship of the four skills in order to be motivated to "transfer" what they learn from one area of language study to another. In these illustrations, certain assumptions are made about the "typical language student's" proficiency across the four skills. However, since it does not develop at the same rate in all students, or even at the same rate for each skill in the same student, we cannot emphasize enough the necessity of getting to know your own students' general level of proficiency in the four skills before making assignments such as these.

For the typical novice-mid to novice-high student, the elementary language teacher might want to try the following activity:

STEPS:

1. Students brainstorm about what they think would make a good French dinner by supplying vocabulary words of food items. One student writes the items suggested on the board; all students help with the spelling.
2. Each student prepares a menu at home, with some guidance beforehand, such as explaining the different categories that are usually found on menus in a French restaurant.
3. When the menus are brought in to class, students work with partners to act out the restaurant scene. One student is the waiter/waitress, the other orders from his menu. Then they switch roles.
4. To elaborate on this theme, students write the dialog they have just practiced or, if the students are especially strong, they prepare at home a description in the present tense of what happens at the restaurant.

This activity encourages practice in speaking, reading, and writing. It reviews specific vocabulary items (food); verbs such as *aller*, *arriver*, *commander*, *manger*, *aimer*; and it requires the use of the partitive article. It can be used to review numbers, if the teacher wants to include prices as part of the assignment.

At the intermediate-low to intermediate-mid level an appropriate speaking/writing activity might resemble the following:

STEPS:

1. Invite a French native to visit the class. Tell the students something about the person, then explain how they will select the topics for discussion.
2. The class as a whole brainstorms about the possible topics (French youth, politics, food, etc.). One student writes the list of topics on the board. Student discuss the pros and cons of each topic, and a vote is taken.
    - (a) In taking a simple vote, the students practice numbers: pronunciation, sound/symbol relationship in the transcription, and addition.
    - (b) For the more advanced class, vote could be made by written ballot: each student lists two choices and gives a written explanation about why they are the best. These choices and explanations are written on separate slips of paper, and grouped by topic. The number of votes for each topic is counted by a different student, who reads the explanations that go with them.
3. Once the topics for discussion are selected, the students are divided into small groups which are each assigned one of the topics. In groups, students write at least one question per person.
4. Either the teacher checks the questions, or they can be exchanged from group to group for peer-editing.
5. The final set of questions is typed by a volunteer from each group, with copies for all members of the class, the teacher, and the visitor who should receive it prior to the visit.
6. Before the visit, in a small group session, each member practices reading aloud the questions, with pronunciation check by the teacher. At this time, students can, if they wish, choose the particular question they want to ask.
7. During the visit, each group of students is given equal time for discussion of its topic (e.g. five groups @ ten minutes = 50 minutes of class). This avoids the usual problem of getting stuck on one subject and never getting to the rest of the topics.
8. Every student asks one question.

9. As a follow-up to the visit, several writing activities are possible:
    - (a) Students write an account of the discussion that resulted from their question.
    - (b) Students write a summary of the discussion of their group's topic. This would include some information about each question in the group.
    - (c) Students write a statement about each topic discussed.
    - (d) Students write about the topic that interested them most, and explain why.
    - (e) Students write a letter of thanks to the visitor in which they elaborate on one topic: why it was of particular interest, for example.

This activity encourages practice in speaking and writing, and, if the silent vote is taken, in reading as well. It focuses on the use of the interrogative. In writing the explanation of their silent vote, students express personal preferences. The voting procedure reviews numbers. The written account of various aspects of the discussion requires some simple note-taking, and the thank-you letter focuses on an altogether different function in writing. The students will acquire new vocabulary and strengthen their knowledge of a variety of verbs (and control of their forms) in their work with the various topics of discussion.

For classes in which the students' levels of proficiency in writing range from intermediate-high to advanced, and where many can sustain an advanced level in listening and speaking, a slightly more complex activity might be appropriate and fun! This centers around the search for a murderer and can be done over a period of several days, or even weeks, depending on the amount of time the teacher wants to devote to it. The scene is set by giving the class this information: "Last night between the hours of 10 pm and midnight, a horrible murder was committed. Half of you in this room are suspects! To prove your innocence, you must find an irrefutable alibi." The teacher then leads the class through these steps:

1. Divide the class in half. One half are the suspects; they choose a partner with whom they claim to have spent the previous evening. From the other half of the class, students are selected to be the judge, the prosecutor, the defense lawyer, and members of the jury.

2. The class is given time for small group work. The suspects work with their partners to create an alibi. At the same time the other half of the class will divides into groups of three or four to discuss the "crime" and the questions they would like to have answered.
3. At the end of the small group session, the suspects are instructed to write their statement of defense which they turn in without letting their partners read it. At the same time the lawyers submit a separate set of questions which they intend to ask the suspects; these should be based, in part, on the small group discussions in which they participated.
4. After allowing enough time for accuracy check and self-correction of the written work turned in thus far, the case is brought to trial. As each suspect is questioned by the lawyers, his or her partner leaves the room. Each member of the jury takes notes during the proceedings in an effort to find contradictions in the testimony of one group of suspects. (A variation would be to tape the proceedings and have the members of the jury listen to the tape again before choosing the guilty party; this gives additional practice in listening, and also makes it possible to play back the contradictory testimony to the two students who are found guilty.)
5. At the end of all testimony, each member of the jury is instructed to decide who the guilty party is and to justify his decision in writing.
6. After allowing enough time for accuracy check and self-correction of this written work, the statements of the members of the jury are read aloud in class. A tally of the verdicts can be kept on the board, so that when the last one has been read, the guilty party is obvious.
7. When the trial is over, the judge writes a summary of the proceedings, including the sentence chosen for the criminals. This is also checked for accuracy and self-corrected, then read aloud to the class.

This activity differs from the others in that the students do not have the same assignment. They all get practice in writing, speaking, and listening but in different formats and at different stages of the trial. Some students will be narrating and describing, some note-taking, and others summarizing. The assignments are equally challenging, but this division of labor makes students dependent on each other for the completion of their work. They are motivated to do a good job, since the opposite could have a snowball negative effect on the steps that follow. The variety of assignments is also much more interesting for the class and the teacher alike. In this activity, the suspects practice using the indefinite past and the imperfect in their statements of defense; the lawyers focus on the use of the interrogative; the members of the jury use indirect discourse in their attempts to point out the discrepancies in testimony; and the judge works with both the past tenses (in the summary of the proceedings) and with the future (in the sentencing).

Once writing is a regular activity, both in the classroom and as homework, it can be incorporated into testing. Because dictionaries are not available, topics for which students have the necessary structural and lexical skills must be choosen carefully. Since it takes a great deal more time for students to "free write" on a test than to fill in blanks with verb forms, topics should be simpler and shorter than on an at-home writing assignment, with clear indications as to how much is to be written, which tests spelling and vocabulary, a brief postcard, and similar descriptive topics. On a more advanced level, story-completion is very effective. The grading of such exercises is more difficult, but a system of one-half for content and one-half for form is satisfactory, albeit a bit subjective as to content. If what the student says is incomprehensible, or irrelevant to the assignment, no credit is given. If the student writes exceptionally well, extra points can be added. It may be more tedious to grade such exam parts, but they are at least as important as sentence transformations.

How do we evaluate our students' writing? If writing is a means of communication, the focus should be on audience, thought, content, and purpose, with accuracy as only one criterion among many. The teaching of writing is not synonymous with error elimination. If only grammatical perfection is rewarded, students will limit themselves to producing error-free prose, whether or not it is interesting or even meaningful. Students must be made aware of just who their audience is before they tackle a writing assignment. In real-life we always write for a reason, and there is always a real-life receiver of the written text. This could be anyone, including the writer himself (as is the case with a shopping list, for example). In real-life we also want to know that our text has indeed been received by its audience, and we really don't expect to have our message returned to us covered with red ink and suggestions for correction! It is important, therefore, for us as teachers to spend a few minutes focusing on the appropriate reader response for any given writing assignment. If we have asked our students to take on a certain mindset for the writing, then we must have a corresponding mindset for the reading. We should not simply return the work with comments about the grammatical structures.

This is easy enough at the higher levels of the language curriculum, where it becomes fairly automatic. We comment on the student's analysis of a literary work; we agree or disagree with his opinion on a political issue; we notice his style; we congratulate him on his insight; we rave about his creativity. The weaker and/or lazier student will also receive the appropriate reader response: a clear statement about the poor quality of the writing and our degree of disappointment! At the lower level in the curriculum, the types of responses that are appropriate for the audience (or reader) are as varied as the topics that are possible for assignment. If our students write a post card to their French teacher, then we give them a real-life response to their message. Other ways in which the intended audience of the student's writing becomes a real-life audience if students write letters to French pen pals or even to students in another class; the answers they receive will be authentic reader response.

This "appropriate reader response" which the teacher must give to the piece of writing is the first half of the job. Perhaps the most difficult thing we as language teachers can ask ourselves to do when presented with certain types of writing is to concentrate only on that first half. This is especially important, for example, with a dialog journal in which we want to maintain a real dialog in the target language while at the same time encouraging students to take risks in their expressive writing. For this, we must create an atmosphere of trust by becoming an interested and uncritical interlocutor. It has been suggested that for certain types of assignments it is appropriate to avoid all negative feedback by underlining everything that is correct in blue ink.

But students do make mistakes, and how do we best respond to them? There seems to be a consensus that teacher correction has little effect on the improvement of student writing but opinions are divided as to the usefulness of student correction. Lalande (1982) states that writing improves when all errors are indicated by the teacher and students correct them. At the other extreme is Semke (1984) whose research indicates that "corrections do not increase writing accuracy, writing fluency, or general language proficiency, and they may have a negative effect on student attitudes, especially when students must make corrections by themselves" (p. 195). Most foreign language teachers would probably agree with her statement that "the amount of free-writing assigned often may be determined more by the amount of time a teacher has to correct it than by the amount believed to be most beneficial to a student's learning" (p. 195). But are we willing to follow her advice and respond only to content? Grammatical errors numerous enough to interfere with understanding cannot be ignored, and even the less serious mistakes should be brought to the student's attention. A system of selective, rather than blanket, error correction can be developed which changes from level to level. All errors are not created equal and a mistake in past participle agreement in level 1 is certainly less serious than incorrect subject/verb agreement. Students in level 4 who make errors in gender should be penalized more than beginners. Different types of writing assignments also require different standards. In-class writing will not produce the same level of accuracy as an assignment that has gone through pre-writing, peer editing, and revising before being turned in.

A correction code (Appendix B) simplifies the evaluation of writing. By placing the symbol in the margin of a paper, the teacher can easily identify the types and frequencies of errors. This correction code is for levels 1-4 of French and can easily be adapted for other languages. It uses obvious abbreviations and symbols so that both evaluator and writer understand quickly what the problem is.

Over the years some language teachers have also found an error matrix helpful for keeping track of their students' writing errors. Ted Higgs explains how he uses such a matrix in his Spanish classes (pp. 673-78): he combines it with a correction code, to create an "active-correction process" for the students. They are responsible for correcting their mistakes based on the hints the teacher with the code. The matrix helps the teacher discover the weaknesses and track the progress of individual students, of the class as a whole, and even across sections of the same course.

In its simplest form, the matrix contains an axis for the students' names, an axis for the correction code, a column for the total number of errors, and a space for the grade assigned. This type of matrix is appropriate for all levels since a weight or value can be changed as the students move through levels. The final grade is based in part on the total number of error points.

Assigning grades is certainly the most difficult and unpleasant part of evaluating writing. If we reject the goal of grammatical perfection, while reacting to errors based on their seriousness according to level, and accept the focus on content, we must find a way to incorporate all of these elements. Claire Gaudiani's four point system in which there are separate grades for grammar and vocabulary use, stylistic technique, organization of material and content (p. 20) is useful in evaluating upper-level writing, but not appropriate for beginning or intermediate students. Wilga Rivers (1968) also suggests a composite grade, based on grammatical accuracy, lexical choice, variety of structure, and general idiomatic quality, with emphasis changing as students acquire greater skill.

In levels one and two, a simpler, two-part system works well, since what students can write is limited. One-half of the grade is based on a global evaluation of content. Does the student write for his audience? Does he communicate his ideas effectively? The other half of the grade is for grammatical accuracy. Using the error grid, the total number of points is added up for each student. Then a graduated scale is devised whereby the lowest number of points produces the highest grade. For instance, if the range of points missed is from 8 to 30, 8–10 would be an A, 11–15 a B, 16–20 a C, 20–25 a D. The curve changes, depending on error intervals in specific classes. The grading sclae can vary from assignment to assignment, or from level to level. The accuracy grade is then averaged with the content grade.

For levels three and four, when students are more skilled, one-half of the grade is still based on the ideas expressed. Style and organization are worth one-fourth, and the remaining one-fourth of the grade is for accuracy, using the same system as for levels one and two, i.e. establishing a curve based on the error frequency in the class. This demonstrates to the students that accuracy alone is not the goal of writing.

The principles and approaches of the writing across the curriculum movement and process writing can help foreign language teachers enjoy bringing writing back into their curriculum. The process can begin in the first weeks of the elementary class, and continue throughout the subsequent levels. Only when writing becomes an integral part of a well-articulated program can students achieve true proficiency.

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Appendix A

NOVICE-MID

dehydrated sentences
scrambled dialogue
dialogue completion—supply questions or answers
scrambled story—four or five sentences are given out of order, students must find the proper sequence
sentence completion—"In the summer I like . . . " etc.
matching pictures and captions

NOVICE-HIGH

Lists: Nouns

You are preparing dinner. Make a list of what you will buy and where.

You are going on a trip to ____________. Make a list of what to pack.

You are getting ready for the fall semester. Make a list of what to take back to school.

Create a menu for an imaginary restaurant. Be sure you include all major categories of food which compose a meal in your foreign country. (Prices may be added).

Verbal expressions (infinitives)

Your son/daughter has just arrived home for vacation. Make a list of chores for him/her.

You have just arrived at home. Make a list of what you would like to do during vacation.

Your plans and projects for the summer: Make a list of what you want to accomplish.

You are going on a trip to ____________. Make a list of things you want to see and things you want to do.

Your schedule: List your activities for a typical day/week, with times and details.

Make a list of what you would like to do, if you could do anything you wanted.

Make a list of what you wish you had done in the past, if it had been possible.

Dialogues: You are at a table in the cafeteria. A foreign student sits down. Introduce yourself and find out as much as you can about the other student.

You and a friend are at a café. Order for yourself, find out what the friend wants. Include the waiter's lines.

You and your parents are out to dinner. Order for yourself, for them and include the waiter in your dialogue.

You are taking the plane/train/bus. At the ticket counter, get information about schedules and prices.

Sentence completion:

Coordinate, e.g. I like French because
Dependent, e.g. I wish that
I am going home so that
Relative, e.g. I hate women/men who
If clauses, e.g. If it snows tomorrow

Miscellaneous:

Supply hotel registration form, ask students to complete.

Weather report: write a weather report for tomorrow. Then revise it according to what the weather was really like.

Explain your likes and dislikes to the residence halls director, so that you can be matched with an appropriate roommate.

Write directions for your French teacher on how to find your dorm/favorite night spot/favorite restaurant.

Structured poetry: cinquins, calligrammes, (concrete poetry), haiku, etc.

INTERMEDIATE-LOW

Notes:

You are going out. Leave a note for your parents (roommate) telling them where you will be, with whom you are, when you will be back.

Ask them to take care of something for you.

You are going out and want your roommate (friend) to join you. Explain where you are, who will be there, how long, and what you are doing.

Your roommate is out when his/her parents call. Leave a note telling him/her that they will be coming to visit, with details about their plans.

You are a parent, leaving your child for the evening/weekend. Leave a note for the babysitter with instructions. Be sure you tell him/her where you can be reached and what your child may or may not do.

You are sick. Write a note to your foreign language teacher, explaining what is wrong with you, how long you expect to be absent and ask for the assignments you are missing.

Postcards:

Send a card to your teacher from Paris/Madrid/Berlin/Moscow, etc.

Pretend you are eight years old and at camp for the first time. Send your parents a postcard.

You are a parent. Send a postcard to your eight-year old who is at camp.

Send a card to your boy/girlfriend from Florida where you are spending Spring Break.

Your flight to Europe has just landed. Send a card to your parents that you have arrived safely. Include some details about the trip/weather.

You are living in a space colony. Send a postcard home to earth.

You are Romeo and have just been banished to Mantua. Send a postcard to Juliet in Verona.

You are Hamlet. Send a card to your friends at the university in Germany, telling them how things are at home.

You are Penelope. Write a card to your husband, Ulysses, who has been gone for seven years.

You are Ulysses. Write to your wife Penelope.

Descriptions:

You are writing a tourist brochure about your region. Describe its geographic features, climate and cultural/sports offerings. Say why people should visit.

You are meeting someone you have never seen before. Write a description so that they can recognize you at the airport.

Describe a famous person, but leave out the name. Your classmates will try to guess who it is.

Describe a famous place, but leave out the name. Your classmates will try to guess what it is.

Write a letter to a friend at home, describing your room at school.

Describe your family in a letter to a French pen pal.

Describe yourself in a letter to a new French pen pal.

Describe your high school (or previous) foreign language teacher to your present foreign language teacher.

You have just been given the name of your new roommate. Write him/her a brief letter describing yourself.

Write to your best friend from high school and describe your latest boy/girlfriend.

Describe your favorite season and tell why you like it.

Journals:

Personal journal: Write three to five sentences in French every day about what you are doing and how you feel.

Dialogue journals—write questions and reflections for your foreign language teacher to respond to.

Foreign language class journal—write every day that you have class, reacting to what has gone on, or using what you have learned.

Miscellaneous:

You are applying to study abroad. Outline your academic career from the end of high school to the present.

You are applying for a summer job. Outline relevant biographical information.

Write a want ad. Exchange with classmate and write letter applying for job. (teacher supplies examples in target language of both ad and letter styles)

Supply captions for pictures/words for cartoon bubbles.

Your French friend wants you to go out with her cousin. Make a list of questions to ask your friend about her cousin to determine if you are willing to accept the date.

INTERMEDIATE-MID

Short letters:

A friend is in the hospital. Send him/her a cheerful letter.

You are angry at your boyfriend/girlfriend. Write a short letter telling him/her why.

Write a note to a friend inviting him/her to visit you during the next vacation period.

You have spent a week at the home of friends at the beach. Write them a thank you letter.

Your grandparents have just sent you a wonderful present. Write them a thank you letter.

Write a letter introducing yourself to someone in another French class. That person will answer.

Send your parents an invitation for dinner at your dorm/fraternity/sorority.

Write a letter to a French hotel (chosen from guidebook) reserving a room for a short stay.

You want to study in France. Write a letter to a French university of your choice, asking for information.

You want to break a date but do not have the courage to confront your date. Write him/her a note with your excuses.

Your roommate is messy. Write him/her a note explaining how you feel and ask him/her to "clean up his/her act."

A French student is planning to study at your university. Write to him/her with information that would not be found in the catalogue.

Descriptions:

The ideal wife/husband.

The ideal professor.

The ideal student.

The typical student at your university.

The ideal parent.

The ideal child.

The ideal roommate.

An ideal vacation.

What is an American? Describe a typical American. You will read your description to some of your classmates who will agree or disagree with you.

The stereotypical Frenchman. What stereotypes do Americans have about the French? You will compare your ideas with those in your class and come up with a "cliché" portrait.

Compare life in the U.S.A. today and in the 1960s.

You are an object (beach, car, book, etc.) of your choice. How does the world look to you?

Rewrites:

Rewrite a simple story in another tense.

Rewrite a narrative as a dialogue.

Rewrite a dialogue as a narrative.

Rewrite a simple story from the point of view of another character in the story.

Insert connector-words in paragraph/story.

Add adjectives and adverbs to make a story more interesting.

Résumés of oral work:

Listen to a passage on tape, write a summary of what was said.

Interview with a native speaker. Prepare questions, then summarize responses.

Students present skit. Others write what happened.

Miscellaneous:

You are a restaurant reviewer for your student newspaper. Write a description of a restaurant you know well and tell your readers why or why not they should go there.

You are a film reviewer. Write a review of a film you have seen recently.

You are a fortune teller. Write a prediction for someone in your class.

INTERMEDIATE-HIGH

Description/Narration:

Go to a park and describe in detail what you see.

You have lost your wallet and you go to the "lost and found office" to try to find it. You must describe the wallet *and* its contents.

Hand out several xeroxed pictures of people in interesting or strange places. Take the picture you find the most interesting and describe the situation and the setting. Give as many details as possible – what time is it, what is the weather, where does this take place, what is the atmosphere, what are the smells, what are the noises, etc?

Talk about your work schedule as a student. How do you organize your time?

Describe the worst vacation you have ever had.

You have witnessed an accident. Write the police report.

Hand out an interesting or unusual picture that has at least two people in it. Create a "story" about the people in this picture, beginning at a point in the past and bringing them up to the moment the picture was taken.

(Have students make four lists on the board: List 1 will have 20 names of people in general, celebrities, professional titles, job descriptions, etc. List 2 will have 20 place names. List 3 will have 10 dates, times, seasons, historical periods. List 4 will have 10 different weather or atmospheric conditions. Write the items of separate slips of paper, divide them into four stacks by category, divide students into groups of two or three.) Choose a representative for your group. Each representative will draw items from the stacks: 3 from category 1, 3 from category 2, 1 from category 3, 1 from category 4. After reading the eight items your representative has collected, brainstorm in your group for 5–8 minutes about possible scenes/stories that can be created around the items. At home you will each write your own version of the story.

What is the funniest thing that ever happened to you? Recount in detail the circumstances (where were you, what were you doing, who were you with, . . . ?)

Imagine that you are a writer in the year 2050 who is asked to write your biography. Write about your whole life, including some details of your death (when, where, how, etc.). Use the third person pronoun as subject, since you (the writer) are writing the biography of someone else (you the person).

Look out your window and describe two people you see. Explain in detail what they are doing, what they are wearing, what they look like, etc.

Relate an incident that occurred in your life in which it was extremely embarrassing to have arrived late.

Letters:

Choose a classmate and exchange three letters with her/him. (After letters have been corrected, have them read in class.)

You are in jail in a foreign country. Write a letter to your parents explaining what happened and what you would like them to do.

You are unhappy with your grade in your FL class. Write a letter to your teacher explaining why it should be changed.

Advice columnist: Write a letter in "Dear Abby" style. Exchange with someone in class and answer the letter with advice.

Miscellaneous:

Explain a typical American holiday to a foreign friend (Halloween, Thanksgiving, Fourth of July).

Imagine that you are the professor. What would you do?

Imagine that you are the president of your university. What changes would you make?

Name three things that you are afraid of, and explain why.

Directions:

A young Frenchman(-woman) who is coming to visit you will rent a car at the airport. Write the directions for him/her to follow to get to your house.

Write directions for how to play your favorite sport/game.

ADVANCED

Imagine that you are late for an appointment. You have absolutely no excuse for your tardiness. Invent a completely unbelieveable story to use as an excuse.

Imagine that in ten or fifteen years there is no gasoline left. How would we go long distances? Think of several solutions to this problem, and explain them in detail.

"The family is an institution that is dying." Discuss the pros and cons of this statement.

Does France have a good reputation in our country? Why or why not?

Is a society without classes possible?

For or against the death penalty – what is your opinion?

What do you think about advertising? Choose an ad that you like, another that you don't like, and explain why.

Do the kinds of clothes people wear make a difference? Explain, giving examples.

Choose a painting you like. Describe it, then imagine that it comes to life. What happens?

Give students an excerpt from a literary work, and have them analyze the style in class. Have them write on a similar topic, imitating the techniques of the author.

Look out of your window and take the first person you see whom you do not know personally. Imagine what this person's life is like.

Relate a turning point in your life.

(Give students a French cartoon.) Explain what is funny about this cartoon.

Is it possible to be smart, sensitive, and happy? Explain.

Choose a book that influenced you. Describe the book and how it changed you.

Compare the enjoyment you get from reading a novel to that of seeing a film.

You have received two failing grades for the semester. Explain this to your parents in a letter.

Retell the story of Little Red Riding Hood from the point of view of the wolf.

Are you for or against living together before marriage? Justify your opinion.

For or against a language requirement?

Should there be a universal language?

What is your idea of utopia?

Appendix B

Correction Code

angl	anglicism (inappropriate translation from English)
art	article
aux	wrong auxiliary (avoir vs. être)
g	gender (masculine/feminine)
inf	infinitive needed here
m	mode (subjunctive vs. indicative)
n/a	noun/adjective agreement
pl	placement (adjective, adverb, negation, etc.)
pn	pronoun
prep	preposition
sp	spelling (includes accents, contractions, elisions, etc.)
s/v	subject/verg agreement
t	tense
v	vocabulary (wrong word)
X	delete, not necessary
?	not clear
∧	something is missing
+	nicely done!

7

Learning Via the Socratic Method:

The Use of the Concept Attainment Model in Foreign Language Classes

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Teaching grammar is an important but arduous task in a foreign language class. Students enjoy listening, speaking and reading but often write carelessly, find linguistic explanations obscure and do not usually draw much lasting understanding from oral or written drills. This is one example of the difficulty that students have in grasping abstract concepts which are not part of their daily experience. The strategies presented here lead students to discover concepts through discussions of examples which embody them. They follow the Socratic method and "help children develop powers of understanding, thinking and communicating." (Kay and Young, p. 158). Maintaining students' self-confidence and motivation is essential. These strategies prevent the discouragement spoken of by Galloway (1981, p. 27) who warns: "Selling students on the idea of communication and then offering crash courses in verb forms, does little more than confuse and alienate all but the most grammar hungry students." They use and further develop the students' knowledge of the language by fostering discussion *in the foreign language*. They are applicable to classes with students who have a wide range of proficiency and avoid the subdivision of classes according to competency. The concentrated work compensates for the small number of contact hours generally available. Although the majority of examples presented deal with the attainment of concepts in grammar, there are also some exciting applications of these strategies to literature and social studies in immersion classes, which will be discussed only briefly.

The Concept Attainment Model

The Concept Attainment Model is a teaching strategy developed by Joyce and Weil in their book *Models of Teaching*. It is based on Bruner, Goodnow and Austin's *Study of Thinking*, in which they analyze the nature of concepts and how they are acquired. "For Bruner and his colleagues, a concept has three essential elements: instances, which are positive and negative examples of the concept; attributes, which are the characteristics which define the concept; and attribute values." (Hamilton and Tucker, 1984, p. 10). Joyce and Weil give, as an example, the concept "apple," which has attributes such as color, shape, taste and size. In the case of color, the attribute values can be yellow, green, or red. They do not include black or purple.

The question asked by Bruner: "How do people achieve the information necessary for isolating and learning a concept?" (Bruner, *et al*, 1977) is closely related to the question asked by foreign language teachers: What information must a student isolate in order to learn a grammar rule? Joyce and Weil (1980, p. 27) use Bruner's definition of a concept and develop three different strategies of concept attainment: The reception, selection and "unorganized materials" strategies. The first of these is particularly applicable to the study of grammar. The selection strategy, although applicable to the learning of grammar, is most suited to concepts in literature or social studies. The last strategy lends itself to more diffuse concepts of an ethical and moral nature.

The Reception Strategy

This strategy is the most structured. The students will need to be guided during the first few classes, as it is very important that they understand precisely how it works. After choosing a grammar rule to be studied, the teacher creates sentences which illustrate it (positive exemplars) and sentences to which it does not apply (negative exemplars) and writes them on the board *labeling* the examples as positive and negative. This strategy is excellent for teaching grammar since the attributes of the concept to be learned are usually very limited, quite precise, and non-negotiable.

During the first part of the class, the students analyze the positive exemplars and deduce what attributes they have in common, contrasting them with the absence of these attributes in the negative exemplars. They then develop hypotheses concerning the concept they have to discover. If these hypotheses are wrong, they are asked to reexamine the attributes of the positive exemplars. Depending on the receptivity of a particular group of students, the teacher might help in this phase by manipulating the flow of data through the particular sequencing of the examples. This will have an influence on the difficulty or the ease with which the students come to grasp the concepts. Once a student has expressed the right hypothesis and has distinguished the "critical" attributes of the positive exemplars, s/he can then try to state a definition according to these essential attributes.

During the second part of the class, the students are asked to identify *unlabeled* examples and classify them in the positive or negative columns. The teacher then confirms the validity of the hypothesis and, if appropriate, names the concept. The students then generate their own examples and, in the last part of the class, analyze and describe their thinking: how did they arrive at their hypotheses? Did they have a broad hypothesis, or did they focus on a narrow view? "The three major functions of the teacher during reception oriented concept attainment activity are to record, prompt, and present additional data" (Joyce and Weil, 1980, p. 40).

The Selection Strategy

While in the reception strategy the exemplars are labeled in the first phase as positive and negative, in the selection strategy they are *unlabeled*, that is, the teacher does not tell the students beforehand which exemplars illustrate the rule and which do not. It is therefore their responsibility to discover which are positive and which are negative and to group them in order to develop hypotheses about their attributes. This of course presents a greater challenge and is useful for the more advanced students. The second and third parts of the lesson are the same as in the reception strategy.

The "Unorganized Materials" Strategy

This is the most successful strategy for advanced students dealing with literature, or social studies immersion classes. As Joyce and Weil (1980, p. 41) state: "The real benefit of concept attainment occurs when we begin to apply it to unarranged material to help us become aware of the attributes employed. Verbal assertions of concepts appear throughout written material, and the attributes on which their concepts are based are not always explicit." It is particularly useful when a teacher wants the students to locate and name a concept (and identify its attributes) used by a writer in a specific text and then compare that example to passages using the same concept found in the work of other writers, but exhibiting different attributes. Using this model is more difficult, since the process demands from the teacher a deep knowledge of the subject matter, fine judgment to evaluate quickly what is happening during the progression of a particular lesson, sensitive reactions towards the students so that they are led to think further and not turned off if they feel their ideas are not listened to, and, finally, good managerial skills. The best results will be excellent class discussions in which, for a specific concept, the appropriateness of one attribute, rather than another, is discussed by the students.

In all three strategies, the students use analytical and evaluative thinking skills during the phases of a concept attainment lesson, focusing on what the teacher want them to learn, on the general content of the subject matter, and on what process they are using.

French Grammar Units Using the Reception Strategy

The specific example presented here is the unit on the passé composé (the present perfect) versus the imparfait (the imperfect). These concepts seem to present difficulties to students. Although the same distinction exists in English, the French language is extremely demanding in the proper usage.

The unit starts with sentences using the past, present, and future tenses with *hier* (yesterday), *aujourd'hui* (today) and *demain* (tomorrow). The first concept to be reviewed is that of the present tense. In the left column (the column of the positive exemplars), sentences using verbs in the present are given. On the right are the negative exemplars: sentences either in the future or the past, which do not illustrate the concept being reviewed. In all the following exemplars, only one sentence describing each attribute is given. Of course the teacher should prepare many of them to help the students deduce the attributes to be discovered. Through their discussions of the attributes of the sentences in both columns, the students propose hypotheses of what the concept might be that links all those labeled positive and opposes them to those labeled negative. Depending on the level of the class, the students might discover that the present in French has four different uses: first, a description; second, an action in the process of taking place (the progressive present in English); third, an habitual action; and fourth, an action taking place a discrete number of times. The unit therefore helps the students discover the diverse aspects of the present tense in French.

Positive exemplars	Negative exemplars
Description: Il a les cheveux bruns. (He has brown hair.)	L'été prochain, je partirai en France. (Next summer, I will go to France.)
Progressive: Il pleut très fort maintenant. (It is raining very hard now.)	Nous serons en vacances dans trois mois. (We will be on vacation in three months.)
Habitual action: Il va à l'école le matin. (He goes to school mornings.)	Quand j'étais en France, je n'aimais pas ce restaurant. (When I was in France, I didn't like this restaurant.)
Discrete actions: Il va à l'école trois jours cette semaine. (He goes to school three days this week.)	Il a mangé du poisson hier. (He ate fish yesterday.)

The second concept of the unit is that of the past tense. In the left hand column, examples of past actions are written on the board with no particular distinctions (using both the "passé composé" and the "imparfait"). In the right hand column are "non-exemplars", that is, sentences with actions taking place in the present. The students have to think of where they are in time and whether they are talking about something in the past or in the present.

Positive exemplars	Negative exemplars
Il a plu très fort hier. (Yesterday it rained very hard.)	Aujourd'hui, j'étudie. Today I study.)
L'année passée j'étais en cinquiéme. (Last year I was in seventh grade.)*	Ce soir (implying that it is evening at the moment when the statement is made) il n'y a que de la soupe. (Tonight there is only soup.)

Il parlait beaucoup en classe. (He spoke a lot in class.)	Il fait froid cet hiver. (It's cold this winter.)

*In France, grade levels start at age six with the 12th and go up to the first.

Finally, the unit comes to the concept that has created great difficulties and has been the cause of numerous student mistakes, the differences between the use of the passé composé and the imparfait. In French, as we have seen, the present tense has four functions. In the past, three of these functions (description, progressive action and habitual action) are subsumed by the imparfait. The fourth, discrete action, is expressed by the passé composé, which implies a single event or a limited number of actions in the past with a stated or implied beginning or end. Therefore, the teacher develops positive exemplars (in the left-hand column) which include description, habitual actions, or actions in the process of taking place. In the right-hand column, the non-exemplars show a single event or an event repeated a limited number of times (in the past) using the passé composé.

Positive exemplars	Negative exemplars
Description:	J'ai été malade dimanche dernier. (I was sick last Sunday.)
A la fin de l'examen, j'étais très fatigué. (At the end of the exam, I was very tired.)	J'ai vu un bon film hier soir. (I saw a good movie last night.)
Progressive action:	Pierre est parti hier matin. (Pierre est parti hier matin. (Pierre left yesterday morning.)
Au moment de son arrivée, toute la famille regardait la télévision. (When he arrived, the whole family was watching television.)	
Habitual action:	
Dans le bon vieux temps les jeunes obéssaient à leurs parents. (In the good old days, young people obeyed their parents.)	

After the students analyze both the positive and the negative exemplars, they are generally able to distinguish the two and define the attributes of both columns. They establish the features of the imparfait, which include description, and habitual or progressive action. In contrast, the passé composé is used when the action in the past is specific, delineated and delimited.

This unit might end with the creation, on the part of the students, of sentences using both the imparfait and the passé composé contrasted with sentences using two imparfait tenses.

Imparfait + Passé Composé	Imparfait + Imparfait
Pendant qu'il dormait le chien a aboyé. (While he was sleeping, the dog barked.)	Pendant qu'il dormait, le chien aboyait sans cesse. (While he was sleeping, the dog was barking continually.)
Pendant qu'elle lisait, assise à la table de la salle à manger, le téléphone a sonné. (While she was reading, seated at the dining table, the telephone rang.)	Elle lisait, perdue dans ses pensées, alors que le téléphone sonnait dans le lointain sans attirer son attention. (She was reading, lost in her thoughts, while in the distance the telephone was ringing without attracting her attention.)

This teaching model reverses the teaching process: usually it is the teacher who is the sole source of information and the students passively receive the "knowledge" they have to acquire. Teaching via the Concept Attainment Model is conducive to the Socratic method, allowing the students to discover the grammar rule by themselves, with the teacher only restating what they have already verbalized. Throughout these exercises, the teacher is asking the students to think conceptually about what they are studying. It is through their responses that s/he can determine when they have attained a concept and when they are only repeating words or rules without full conceptual understanding.

These grammar units can be adapted using the selection strategy. The students are presented with *unlabeled* exemplars, which pose a greater challenge and require a higher level of fluency in their language as they have to engage in discussion immediately.

Social Studies Example In An Immersion Class Using the Selection Strategy

The selection strategy is appropriate when students have encountered a concept but have not pulled together all its attributes and characteristics. For example, in a 7th grade world studies immersion class the concepts of rural and urban appear many times and their opposition and contrast is not always fully understood by junior high school students. Many of them live in suburbia and therefore the concept of city and the importance of its development in Western history is one the students must acquire. Examples of rural and urban are presented without labels, which lead the students to discuss the various attributes. This is the perfect definition of what immersion is all about as the students are dealing with the very content of their world studies curriculum while they are learning new vocabulary in the second language in a natural way.

At the beginning of the unit, the teacher puts on the board statements in French referring to all the characteristics which have been touched upon in connection with the concepts country and city in the previous weeks. These may include: limited and poor transportation, most of the people were farmers, markets were the center of social life, etc. Since the social studies curriculum does not have many examples relating to rural life, this part of the lesson can be used to review some of the vocabulary the students have worked with at the elementary level, the very vocabulary which is directly associated with country living. This is another example of how in immersion both language and learning of concepts are always intermingled. Here, in social studies, in order to capture all the characteristics of the concept "rural", the students review, or "relearn" some of the rich vocabulary of children's stories. Here are a few sentences picked at random.

Le jardinier prend soin des arbres fruitiers.
(The gardener takes care of the fruit trees.)
Julien fauche son foin.
(Julian mows his hay.)
L'eau du lac fait tourner le moulin.
(The water of the lake turns the mill.)

As the two concepts become more precise, the students are asked to work in groups and to come up with sentences in French describing them. They then write these examples on the board, unlabeled, and ask the rest of the class to list them as positive (urban) and negative (rural). During this phase of the lesson, the students are asked to keep a record of all the "attributes," the selection of which engenders particularly interesting discussions. For example, why is it that large cities have museums? And it is exciting to note that students themselves discover that they exist because the financial and cultural resources available in a city are such that they produce museums and cultural centers.

Examples in Advanced Language or Social Studies Immersion Classes Using the "Unorganized Materials" Strategy

In the previously described strategies, the students were led to an understanding and naming of a concept through an examination of attributes. In the present strategy, the students start with concepts whose name is familiar, for example freedom or democracy, but whose attributes they have never explored in depth. Often they do not realize that many cultures use the same name for a given concept but associate with it not only different attributes, but at times almost opposite, contradictory ones. In the lessons described here, a comparison is made of excerpts from various literary works and social studies textbooks containing concepts denoted by the same name but defined by different attributes. The students come to a deeper understanding of the concepts as they work at defining the wide range of attributes.

The following example of the "unorganized materials" strategy arose in response to the required seventh grade World Studies curriculum, taught in French in the immersion classes. Although this curriculum is composed of unrelated units, the concept of freedom appears in conjunction with both the Middle Ages and the Soviet Union. This strategy of the Concept Attainment Model is well adapted to helping the students discover the attributes which describe the notion of freedom in each era and society, and to appreciate the complexity of this concept.

As a first step, before any class or group work is organized, the students prepare individually, as homework, a series of statements which describe and define their idea of freedom. These are picked up and put in a folder for future review. The next day, the teacher writes on the board a number of categories of people (these can be changed depending on the composition of the class, the social background of the students, and where the school is located). Some of these categories might be:

—Housewives in suburbia.

- Old people on retirement living in an inner city.
- Students in a junior high school.
- Farmers in Iowa.

The class is divided into small groups, each group representing one of the above categories. Students now have to think of *who* they are, as members of their particular group, of how they might spend their day, where they go when they are sick, whether they go on vacation, etc. The result of their research will be a well-written paper *in French* describing their lives and defining what freedoms their particular group has and what attributes they associate with freedom. Each paper will be presented to the class, the teacher acting only as moderator or guide. The students slowly become aware that freedom for one group is not defined by the same attributes as freedom for other groups and that the freedom of one group may impinge on the freedom of the others.

After this exercise, the teacher focuses on the discussion on the place in the curriculum where the concept of freedom arose, viz., in conjunction with the growth of cities in the Middle Ages. The class is again divided into small groups, which now represent categories pertinent to the Middle Ages: serfs, peasants, tradesmen, craftsmen, lords, knights, etc. They research and read all the materials in French in the classroom (and elsewhere) which describe how each of these groups lived. These materials are supplemented by portfolios of pictures (taken from paintings of that era), depicting the blacksmith, the knight, the life in the castle, etc. The students are thus immersed, through both the pictures and the texts, in the subject they are studying. It is out of this research that the attributes of the concept of freedom within the context of feudal society are understood by the students. And again each group writes a paper to be presented to the class describing how, from within their segment of medieval society, freedom would be defined. It is then, at the end of these lessons, that the teacher turns to an in-depth study of several passages. One of these is the section from the Grande Encyclopédie Larousse, volume 12, on *Libertés Publiques: L'évolution de la notion de liberté, p. 7121.*

In the previous example, the students come to understand that the attributes that are associated with the concept of freedom are different in different eras. In the next example, dealing with the concept of freedom as it arose in conjunction with the study of the USSR, the students come to understand that even at a given time in world history, the concept of freedom is associated with different attributes depending on the society. Excerpts are taken from encyclopedias from the United States, France, and the USSR (of course, the material from the American and Soviet encyclopedias is translated into French). These examples help to reveal how, in the present, the attributes of the concept of freedom depend on the difference of culture and society. (A complete text of a social studies unit using the "unorganized materials" strategy is available from the author at 7402 Ridgewood Ave., Chevy Chase, MD 20815).

Conclusion

These new teaching strategies are exciting for the students, forcing them to think and participate more actively in class. The students are led to discover the grammar rules or the concepts to be learned through their own analysis of the examples, using their oral skills in the foreign language and with less emphasis on the written drills. Their comprehension of these rules and concepts, as manifested in their speaking and writing, is clearly superior to that acquired through repetitive drills or linguistic explanations. Classes, rather than being a drudgery, are transformed into a game of discovery; students learn new skills which make them feel good about their language and intellectual skills as well as about themselves in general. The classroom becomes a place where the students can be wrong and not be penalized, where they are encouraged to speak up, venture ideas and present hypotheses. As Kay and Young (1986, p. 158) state: "Through oral defense of their opinions and participation in sustained, free discussion, students are able to develop better self images, which affects their motivation to learn." The skills acquired by students using the strategies of the Concept Attainment Model are particularly well adapted to helping students learn content and reflect on their thinking processes.

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8

The Newspaper and the Five Skills

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Introduction

Materials like newspapers, magazines, radio, and television broadcasts are often suggested as motivational sources of authentic input for enriching or replacing textbook activities. The present article seeks to synthesize the literature on authentic materials and relate it to the five skill areas: reading, culture, speaking, writing, and listening. In addition, it provides practical suggestions for applying the research findings to the development of classroom activities. While it is understood that print media are by their nature reading texts, the authors wish to capitalize on both the availability and motivational quality of such resources and extend their use in authentic ways to other skill areas.

Authenticity

The question of authenticity of input used in language instruction has recently become prominent within the profession. In a lay sense, the term "authentic" is generally understood to mean "genuine or real," and it is precisely the interpretation of that term that has given impetus to the current polemic. In practical terms, it means choosing whether to use materials created by and for native speakers versus those created for pedagogical purposes.

Essentially three distinct definitions of authenticity can be found in the literature. Widdowson (1978) has posited the idea that authenticity resides within the receiver, not the sender. It is a quality that only the reader may determine by virtue of having interacted with, and comprehended, the target language. In Widdowson's terms authenticity has to do with the receiver's response to linguistic input. Swaffer (1985), on the other hand, puts the onus of authenticity on the message itself. She contends that if the principal intent of a text is to communicate meaning, then the text is by nature authentic, whether intended for native speakers or for second language learners. Because the majority of materials for the latter group are developed with the objective of teaching specific grammar structures, vocabulary, and cultural information rather than with communicating information, they do not meet Swaffer's criterion of authenticity. Representative of the third point of view, Rings (1986) points out that the language situation itself is important in establishing authenticity. Not only the speaker, but also the instructional situation must be authentic in order for language structures and content to be authentic. Stated simply, authentic texts must be set within an authentic context.

While the topic of authenticity has been hotly debated, very little empirical evidence about the effects of authentic materials on student achievement has been reported. As one would expect, most of the relevant research has focused on acquisition of reading skills. While some researchers have found that simplified materials produce superior comprehension (Klare, 1978; Davies, 1984), others have discussed positive results using authentic reading or listening materials (Levine and Haus, 1985; Duquette, Dunnett and Papalia, 1987). Clearly, there is a need for further investigation. In the meantime, however, authentic materials seem to be a logical basis for instructional activities, and informal classroom observation indicates that learners enjoy using them.

Print Media

The purpose of the present article is to focus on texts found in newspapers and magazines published by and for native speakers of French and Spanish. These two forms of popular media were selected over literature or other varieties of authentic materials for several reasons. Because newspapers and magazines have a contemporary focus on many areas of common interest such as sports, social life, entertainment, politics, and economics, they have a great deal of natural appeal for adolescent and adult second language learners. In addition, such publications are readily available on the newsstands in many areas of the United States. With even a single copy of a newspaper or magazine, one can create a multitude of interesting, authentic language activities.

Use of Authentic Materials to Teach Second Language Skills: Focus on Reading

Teaching students to read in a second language comprises the most logical application of print media. Yet author-generated texts are still the norm in foreign language textbooks, at least at the first year level (Beatie, Martin, and Oberst, 1984). Beattie *et al* recommend that future textbooks contain a selection of materials of a more challenging stylistic range and content that force the learner to read for comprehension, all of which can be amply found in authentic language samples.

Although a common criticism of the use of authentic materials is a perceived inability of the learner to process the complexities of authentic language, the difficulty level of a reading exercise may actually be more dependent upon the comprehension activities than the text itself. Rather than teaching reading with graded texts, Grellet (1981) advocates using graded exercises and authentic texts.

Bernhardt (1984) argues for the use of natural materials from an information-processing perspective in foreign language reading. Along with other researchers (see, for example, Levine and Hause, 1985; Johnson, 1981), she maintains that activitating learner's schemata, or background knowledge, is more effective in aiding comprehension than the use of linguistically simplified materials. Edited texts that result from the simplifying process often impede comprehension, since many cohesive features, such as redundancies and discourse indicators tend to be eliminated in the process. In addition, real discourse presents structures and vocabulary in natural surroundings and in a natural sequence, that of frequency of occurrence (Tetrault, 1984).

Finally, the acquisition of a second language as defined by Krashen and Terrell (1983) is based upon comprehensible input. Both written and oral authentic materials are a major source of this input. Authentic texts at the i + 1 level (slightly beyond the students' level of competence) are used primarily for acquisition purposes, and texts at higher levels are used for the development of coping skills.

Focus on Culture

By carefully selecting journalistic texts, instructors can provide their students with information from the perspectives of a society's contributions to civilization, as well as that of everyday life. Because newspapers and magazines offer "snapshots" of various segments of the target culture, they are a logical medium for cross-cultural analysis. Several second language researchers have investigated the effects of newspapers on cross-cultural understanding (see, for example, Blatchford, 1986; Mollica, 1979) and found them to be effective sources of input. In the related literature on schema theory, however, there is abundant evidence that, when learners lack prerequisite cultural background information, input cannot be linked with existing cognitive structure, and comprehension cannot take place (Steffens, Joag-Dev and Anderson, 1979; Reynolds, Taylor, Steffensen, Shirley and Anderson, 1982; Johnson, 1984). Nevertheless, with appropriate preliminary activities, such as schema activators, advance organizers, and pre-reading exercises (see, Omaggio, 1986, for examples) print media not only provide learners with cultural information, but also offer them opportunities to strengthen their analytical skills (Seelye, 1985).

Focus on Writing

Authentic reading materials also lend themselves to the improvement of second language writing skills. It has often been stated that to get students to write, they must have something to write about. Culturally authentic readings fulfil that very goal by providing coverage of contemporary topics of high interest, with a natural embedding of vocabulary necessary to discuss or write about the subject. In addition, if the goal is to teach real-life use of language, it is impossible to separate reading comprehension from other skills, including writing. In realistic situations, reading an article, advertisement, or editorial may lead naturally to some type of authentic writing activity, such as writing a letter, summarizing, notetaking, or simply writing a note to oneself about a future endeavor.

Finally, numerous studies in first language research have pointed to a positive link between quality of writing and the quantity of reading one does for interest or pleasure (see Krashen, 1984, for a review of the research). Krashen hypothesizes that large amounts of reading give the writer a feeling for the look and texture of good writing, whether it is in the first or second language. Thus, the use of authentic readings in second language instruction may also play a role in the improvement of overall writing performance.

Focus on Speaking

Similar to writing, linking reading comprehension to speaking is a natural extension of utilizing print media. In real life we often react verbally to something we have read. Second language instruction mirrors real life when students are encouraged to react orally to authentic readings in the form of expressions of emotion or appreciation, discussions, or debates.

From a communicative perspective of language teaching, the reading of authentic texts may serve to generate two types of Littlewood's (1981) functional communicative activities. In the first type of activity one learner summarizes the contents of a text recently read while his/her partner asks pertinent questions. Here, information is shared, not unlike when a husband and wife discuss an article that only one has read. In the second type of activity in which both participants have read the text, processing of information is the goal. Communication results from the need to discuss and evaluate the facts, to argue, justify, or persuade in order to solve a problem or reach a common decision. In short, it is the print media that provides the stimulus for sharing and processing information, both valued goals of foreign language instruction.

Focus on Listening

Although print journalism differs radically from radio and television journalism (see Weissenreider, 1987, for a study of Spanish news broadcasts), written texts can be used as a basis for listening practice. Like speaking and writing skills, listening activities based on print media require a three-step process: reading, comprehension, and application. Reading aloud a newspaper or magazine article, as a text for listening comprehension activities, does not achieve the intended purpose, because the principle of authentic language use is violated. In real life, for example, listening skills are focused on newspapers and magazines during conversation, when seeking additional information about something one has read, and when comparing a newspaper article with a radio or television news story. Because print media are not forms of oral discourse, students should first read the text and then focus on authentic response formats that incorporate listening skills. Lynch (1982, p. 13) cautions that the normal objective of listening is not to score points nor to answer comprehension questions, but rather to "perceive, process, and act on information in its broadest sense and for a wide variety of motives." Response formats should allow learners to exercise their own preferences and concentrate on details that are of personal interest to them. As such, authentic listening activities will often require oral or written responses. Whether those responses should be in the native or target language must be determined by the proficiency of the learners and the logical, intrinsic demands of the activity itself.

Guidelines for Preparation of Materials

When using print media in the classroom, care must be taken in the presentation. In order to be effective and appreciated by the learner, the choice of text, its visual appearance, and the construction of activities must all be carefully planned.

Certainly, a text must be chosen for its intrinsic value in order to encourage student interaction. Texts which relate to students' background knowledge are likely to be comprehended with less effort following a schema-theoretic view of reading. The difficulty level of a text is another consideration, particularly when teaching with a specific proficiency level in mind. Even within a text uniformity of level may not be present. In such cases, Child (1986, p. 105) suggests selecting certain portions of text, editing some sections, or rejecting the text as unsuitable.

The visual appearance of a text should be an overriding concern when preparing the materials. Poor print quality only adds to the learners' task and causes unnecessary frustration and anxiety. A clear copy of the text is essential. A slide or transparency can also be made if one wishes to focus attention on a central point.

To make the reading more accessible to students' comprehension, glossing may be helpful, if kept to a minimum. To maintain authenticity, Grellet (1981) suggests that the text be presented as it first appeared, with the same typeface, space devoted to the headlines, and accompanying picture. A message is conveyed to the reader through its original physical appearance, and information may be lost with alteration.

Once a text is carefully chosen with attention paid to its appearance, activities must be constructed to maximize student comprehension and interaction. Although the literature abounds with suggestions for different types of strategies (for an excellent review, see Philipps, 1984) generally three types of exercises are utilized. Pre-reading activities enable the reader to form expectations for the content they are to read. They teach students specific strategies needed to decode text, such as guessing from context, skimming, scanning, and working with word families. Mid-reading activities in the form of adjunct questions embedded in the text or located adjacent to it can be used to maintain students' involvement with the narrative (Melendez & Pritchard, 1985). Post-reading activities comprise more than traditional content questions. Depending on the target skill for which the reading was initiated, a wide range of exercises test comprehension directly (to avoid students quoting from the passage); lead students to draw conclusions, express opinions, or make cross-cultural comparisons; or help students gain an overall understanding.

Caveats

The literature on authentic materials has also provided a number of caveats for second language educators. Well-known newspapers and magazines such as *Paris Match* and *El País* offer a perspective largely focused on life in the capital cities. In order to provide learners with a more realistic view of the target culture, Mariet (1985) suggests exposing them to a variety of regional texts. In addition, one must be aware that newspapers and magazines are commercial enterprises aimed at a particular target readership; and, as such they may reflect the values, interests, and biases of the readership, as well as those of the owners, editorial staff, and the political mileu.

Discourse register is another significant element to consider when adopting or adapting authentic materials for the classroom. Optimally, a variety of registers from informal to formal should be presented in their appropriate contexts to learners. Choosing texts from various sections of the newspaper should guarantee a representative sampling of registers.

It is obvious that preliminary study of the texts must be done before they are assigned to students. Internal organization of articles and arrangement of various sections, for example, may not be similar to U.S. newspapers with which learners are familiar. In those cases a pre-reading familiarization session must be planned before attempting to do any skill development activities.

Finally, newspapers and magazines should not be used indiscriminately. Without concern for how the language is being used and the context in which the language was produced, the cultural reality. Learners should be taught to determine which bits of language are useful in everyday life and which are specific to the article (Sewell, 1982).

Conclusion

This paper supports the notion that authentic materials can be used to promote second language acquisition. A clear need exists for future research into the effects of such materials upon achievement in the five skills. However, because print media provide opportunities for real interaction with the target language and culture, the authors believe that authentic texts are a valuable instructional resource for the second language classroom of today.

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9

Teachers Working with Teachers:

Becoming Proficient with Proficiency

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For better or worse the very mention of the word "proficiency" in the profession attracts a certain interest at conferences, in articles, and in the course of informal discussion among teachers of foreign languages. Two very different aspects of proficiency concern teachers in the secondary schools: the first has to do with the maintenance and improvement of their own level of oral proficiency and the second with the means of teaching and testing for proficiency in the four skills in their classrooms.

A project developed at Indiana University of Pennsylvania under a grant from the Secretary's Discretionary Funds set as its goal meeting the needs of secondary teachers of French and Spanish in both these areas of proficiency. An underlying assumption of the project design was that participation in the inservice program would not only improve teachers' speaking and teaching abilities, but that it would also enable them to assume control for continuing work with these issues among their colleagues. In other words, they were learning process as well as product.

The total program consisted of four interrelated phases of which two occurred during the funding period and the other two as follow-up. Briefly, they were designed as:

Phase 1: Proficiency Building. A series of Saturday Immersion sessions was held throughout the academic year at several of the campuses of the State System of Higher Education in Pennsylvania. Teachers enjoyed an opportunity to talk with other teachers about topics geared to strengthen their target-language proficiency under the leadership of a native, or near native, college professor who had been trained in the conduct of the Oral Proficiency Interview. It was felt that this training made these professors more aware of the different performance levels described in the ACTFL Guidelines and therefore best prepared to lead the kinds of sessions desired.

Phase 2: Proficiency Training. A three-week summer institute was held on the IUP campus. It had two components: The first week was subcontracted to ACTFL (American Council of the Teaching of Foreign Language) to train selected secondary teachers in the procedures for conducting and rating the Oral Proficiency Interview. This training workshop was followed by two weeks of intensive work with proficiency-oriented curriculum design and the instructional strategies appropriate for a more communicative language classroom.

Phase 3: Proficiency Implementation. During the summer workshop, teachers chose specific projects which would be the basis of experimentation and evaluation in their classes during the 1987/88 school year. Their district superintendents had committed to them a sum of $200.00 for the purchase of materials that they deemed useful for effective implementation of their project.

Phase 4: Proficiency Results. Evaluation and dissemination of the results of the workshop projects are taking place on informal and formal bases. Teachers were encouraged to share what they had learned with colleagues in their schools or regions or through activities in collaborative groups already active in many regions in the state. Many had reported that they have already found occasions for this. The Spring Methodology Conference at IUP in April 1988 will serve as a forum for presentations based upon the teachers' work.

Proficiency Building and Proficiency Training

This article will explore the two completed phases of the project with an emphasis on the positive interactions teachers experienced as they strove to improve their own fluency, as they learned to conduct interviews and as they experimented with adapting materials and developing teaching strategies to promote proficiency within their classrooms.

The Immersion Sessions

Immersion sessions were held at Lock Haven, Slippery Rock, and West Chester Universities of Pennsylvania as well as at IUP. The format of the Oral Proficiency Interview served as a guideline for the common structuring of the Saturday sessions. It was known that the teachers would demonstrate a wide range of proficiency levels among themselves, and activities were needed that would be at a comfortable level at least some of the time and at a challenge level at others. It was important for teachers to use this opportunity to talk with colleagues as adults and to offset the predominant experience of most which was talking about texts to adolescents. At the same time, it was necessary for them to have to reach, to be pushed linguistically so that growth and improvement might also occur.

An additional advantage of adhering to the Oral Interview format lay in its power to direct the role of the group leader. It is not uncommon in these periodic immersion experiences or in advanced conversation courses, for native-speaker professors to do most of the talking; indeed, they often become listening rather than speaking occasions. Teachers do enjoy immersions where they are flooded with language and able to acquire new cultural information, but our goal was the improvement and/or maintenance of their oral skills so a preponderance of "teacher talk" (here teacher means student) was a criterion by which success would be measured. Training in the OPI includes mastering interview techniques which help the interviewer develop good samples with a much higher quantity of interviewee's speech. Question types which elicit more extensive responses, nonverbal encouragers, and nonobtrusive feedback are devices used effectively by trained interviewers. Consequently, professors were chosen to lead these immersion sessions who had been trained in the Interview, even though not all had followed through with certification as testers. Their experience through the training workshops rendered them ideal group leaders. They understood clearly the levels of proficiency which were keyed to the various activities and were able to design and lead practices that would elicit performance at those levels.

A framework designed by the project directors as a guide to the professors leading the groups was a constant in the sessions. The specific activities to carry out the objectives were designed by the individual faculty members.

1) *Warm-Up* (1-½ hours).

Targeted level of proficiency: *Intermediate.*

Just as in the Oral Interview, it was important to start with an activity to reacquaint teachers with the language, to acquaint them with colleagues they did not know, to put them at ease in an informal, casual setting where they could choose much of what they wanted to say in terms of information.

Sample Activities:

A) *Interviewing*: Participants interview two other people they had not met before. They are given a sheet of paper with designated topics listed across the top such as: (FR) *Voyages / preferences / loisirs / impression* or (SP) *Familia / Enseñanza / Deportes / Algo extraño occurrido este mes.* There are blocks which provide space for note-taking under each topic. At the end of the give-and-take, participants introduce one another to the group by sharing some of the interesting information they had gathered.

B) *Story Telling*: Participants compose a story, in chain style, to accompany a series of pictures. The latter may be drawn from any text, workbook, or magazine. Participants themselves establish the level of the activity, for those who are stronger in the language tend to embellish or create more complex story lines. The fact that each contributes only a sentence or two keeps it comfortable for less fluent speakers.

2) *Discourse and Instructional Activities* (1½ hours)
Targeted level of proficiency: *Advanced.*

It was predicted that this would be the level at which most teachers operated most comfortably. It was intended to serve the Level Check function of the Oral Interview which meant giving participants opportunities to talk for extended sequences on a variety of familiar subjects and current events. Tasks of narration, description, giving instructions, dealing with complications in the target culture and talking about timely topics in a factual manner. Naturally, for weaker participants, this kind of activity pushed them linguistically while their colleagues played the role of sympathetic conversational partner.

Sample Activities

A) *Giving Instructions (Body poses).* Participants worked in pairs for this activity designed by Fernand Fisel of the French Department at IUP. One person in each pair was given a card with a stick figure drawing of a person in a curous body pose. The person with the card may not reveal it to his/her partner but must instruct him/her to pose in the same manner. No gestures were permitted; everything had to be done with words. The exercise was completed when the matching position was achieved. (Needless to say, we had suggested that participants dress casually and comfortably for the Saturday program!) The whole group then came together and the "poseur" assumed his/her position so that the others could give it a name as is done with sculpture *a la "Le Penseur."*

B) *Slide Interpretation*. Vincent Remillard, Chairperson of the Foreign Language Department at St. Francis College (Loretto, PA) used slides to combine a cultural presentation with tasks requiring detailed description. The first group of slides were of scenery and participants were asked to describe what they saw, guess where it was, and provide rationales for their choice. Then slides were shown which contained more clues to location and events. Follow-up activities included stories and personal narrations by teachers who had visited or lived in the region shown and questions from those who wanted more information.

C) *News Broadcasts*. Working in groups of three, participants prepare the evening news. Members in each group volunteer to report the local and international news, sports, weather, while others serve as field reporters, interviewers, and announcers for commercials.

3) *Challenge activities* (1 hour)
Targeted level of proficiency: *Superior*

After a relaxing luncheon where conversation was maintained in the target languages, teachers returned to activities which challenged many while serving as good opportunities for the strongest speakers to use their skills at a level not often available to them in their daily contacts while teaching. The activities required them to talk on topics less familiar to them, support opinions, hypothesize and deal with abstract issues. Tailoring of language was also required in some of the roles that they had to assume. Those participants not yet at this level benefited from the effort and from the listening comprehension that was provided for them by their colleagues.

Sample activities.

A) *Team Analysis for Advertising Campaign.* This activity, also designed by Remillard, was based upon an idea of Carney (1985). The group is divided into teams of 2 to 4 persons. Each is given an advertisement in the target language for the purpose of a publicity campaign. Within each group, someone is appointed team leader, head of advertising, and sales manager, with other sales personnel added as needed. The teams discuss the target and psychology of the ad as well as how it could be rendered more effective. The entire group comes together to discuss how each ad reflects the target culture and the possible success of the ad in the U.S.

B) *Mock Interviews of Political Figures.* Teachers worked in groups with a leader selected to play the role of a prominent political figure from the target culture. Participants question the politician about his/her views, future political actions, and hypothetical situations. Following the interview segment, the group discusses the responses given in terms of current events, political ramifications and their own opinions of the situation.

C) *Current Events Discussion.* Participants read a brief newspaper or magazine article or listen to a taped report (or videotaped from satellite) in the target language dealing with a current event. Afterwards they devise a "pro" or "con" issue based on the report, form teams and debate the issues.

4) *Wind-Down* (1 hour)

Targeted Level of Proficiency: *Intermediate/Advanced*

The goal here was to bring the day to a close with some enjoyable exercises which allowed people to operate at their individual levels of proficiency. The most suitable activities for this period were those that permitted stronger candidates to be more expansive and creative and weaker ones to participate fully but at a linguistically less sophisticated level.

Sample Activities.

A) *Desert Island, What If . . . ?"* Working in small groups, participants pretend that they have been washed ashore on a small deserted island where there is not much to do. They must think of ten things they would have brought to the island had they known this would occur and explain why they chose these objects. An optional, additional task would require the group to reach consensus on the ten items.

B) *Situations.* Any type of role play can serve as an informal wind down. Some examples used:
- Explain to your foreign friend how your food processor works, why you like it (or not), and what you use it for. Share a recipe.
- Explain to your Mayan exchange student, who has always slept in a hammock, how to make her bed in your home.

Teacher reactions to the immersion sessions. Evaluations were done at the end of each immersion Saturday and a sample of responses included:

- "the best thing was the people and their good will towards the common object of their presence, talking in the language"
- "the use of French all day"; "the use of Spanish exclusively"
- "ideas which can be used in my classroom"
- "discussion of relevant issues"
- "opportunities to speak with colleagues from different schools in both language."

Timothy Ashe, a Spanish teacher at Kittanning High School (PA), reported on how the immersion experience affected him and his teaching (1987 ACTFL Annual Meeting, Atlanta, GA). The language opportunity was important in that it refreshed him and reminded him of a level of language he once used more frequently, still has to use when he travels or hosts exchange students, but does not often have to sustain in his daily teaching.

He found it challenging and rewarding to have to speak more than "Spanish II or III." Ashe has designed a variety of activities for his classes based upon exercises in which he participated but adjusted for the age and language level of his students.

The project directors were especially pleased by the readiness and willingness of teachers to participate in the many activities and by comments which demonstrated that the experience made them more eager and willing to pursue small group work in their classes and include activities which allow students to work at a challenge level — even though errors may occur. It is hoped that the stimulus received from working together and the opportunity to see how much sessions could be structured by teachers themselves to help one another would result in continued immersions as part of collaboratives and inservice programs.

The Summer Institute

The Summer Institute on Proficiency Testing and Teaching consisted of a three-week program; during the first week, participants were trained by ACTFL in the administration and rating of the Oral Proficiency Interview. This was one of the few occasions where tester training was offered to an audience of secondary teachers. The remaining weeks were devoted to a curriculum workshop which dealt with objectives, strategies, and materials adaptation for a proficiency-oriented classroom. The pairing of training plus curricular implications assured that teachers' grasp of the issues was based on a thorough understanding and initiation into the details of the proficiency scales as demonstrated by student performance.

The ACTFL Workshop

Our goal was to select teachers for the Institute who were at the Superior level of proficiency so that they might pursue certification as a tester. In actuality, we accepted some who will probably test at the Advanced/Advanced Plus level. Although they will not be certified, it was important to note that these individuals did master the art of eliciting ratable samples at the lower levels, and they transferred the insights gained into effective curricular changes.

Teacher cooperation in this initial session was superb. As anyone knows who has undergone this training workshop, there is an intensity and a pressure exerted by learning a new technique, in what is often another language, among one's peers. It is quite different from taking a course together, for performance in a formative stage is no easy task for people used to being teachers, not learners. They helped one another with constructive criticism of interviewing strategies, with preparation of questions and situations for different levels and by listening to and analyzing master tapes. The dormitories in the evening were even filled with the sounds of teachers interviewing one another within and across their language groups.

The Curriculum Workshop

The workshop consisted of a number of topical presentations by the directors and by outside consultants. While the intent here is to focus on the teachers' interactions with one another as they defined a project for implementation in their classrooms, a brief report upon the topics and sequence of the sessions establishes coverage.

The overriding goal was to have teachers incorporate principles of proficiency guidelines into their classes and to determine what changes will occur as a result of paying attention to concepts such as "creative language," communicative activities, personalization, task/function of language, and the functional trisection as an organizer.

1) *Objectives and goal setting.* Floy Miller and Charlotte Cole, secondary teachers from Massachusetts, led sessions on curriculum development from a proficiency perspective.
2) *Speaking.* A major portion of the work revolved about developing oral proficiency through systematic attention to the level requirements. Ways of adapting interview procedures, role-plays, and survival language for use in courses were explored; for advanced students, thought was given to finding opportunities for paragraph length speech and extended discourse.
3) *Receptive skills, listening and reading.* Total Physical Response was presented as a method for developing listening skills early in a program; some work was also done with the Natural Approach to language learning. The use of authentic materials for both listening and reading was explored and teachers practiced working with those materials to make them accessible to students.
4) *Writing.* Comparisons with speaking led participants through some new ways of developing writing according to functional tasks. Journal writing and methods for error correction and feedback were investigated.
5) *Miscellaneous issues.* Communicative language teaching

requires that practitioners become competent in managing:

- small groups and paired work
- grading exercises with divergent responses
- error correction (and other feedback measures)
- achievement and/or communicative testing
- textbook adaptation.

A fair amount of "hands-on" time was built into the workshop, and the fact that most participants were living in the dormitory meant that much unofficial collaboration also took place. Periodically teachers worked in groups based upon common textbooks in their schools; at other times, they grouped themselves to solve problems with certain levels, especially upper ones where they expressed frustration over a lack of materials to fit the kinds of advanced level tasks they now wanted to emphasize. They shared activities that worked for them. (It is important to note that not everything has to be new or changed. Teachers have been using a lot of good communicative strategies for years, but still benefit from having their contribution confirmed.) They also discovered that the objectives they were setting for the various levels were fairly consistent although they came from quite different schools and districts. Finally, they found that their challenges had common dimensions, and they had created a network among themselves which would allow them to continue to grow and to collaborate.

The impact of the Summer Institute did not end with the summer itself. As the workshop went into its final days, teachers began to concentrate on selecting some aspect of their teaching that they wanted to develop into a follow-up project. The final projects tended to group themselves into the following categories:

- Speaking activities
- Developing advanced level skills
- Survival skills component
- Vocabulary and personalization
- Reading strategies and materials
- Culture
- Listening comprehension materials
- Oral testing
- Writing at the advanced level

In their evaluations, participants confirmed that the combination of interactions with institute personnel and with colleagues provided for a rewarding experience that was certain to influence their teaching. The year ahead should provide evidence of what does indeed occur in at least thirty-six classrooms, primarily in Pennsylvania.

Conclusion

The design of the project assumed that with a chance to participate in immersion sessions, teachers could move on to take responsibility for maintenance and advancement of their proficiency. They now know how to lead groups so that immersion time is not spent in happenstance or passive activities, and how to challenge their language ability by being aware of what tasks and content the next level involves. There is a possibility for a growing network of trained and certified OPI testers in the area which should allow for exchange interviews of students and related activities. The summer curricular discussion united teachers from school around the state and from within districts so that they could evaluate their own programs in light of others, share information about texts and materials, and cooperate in the setting of priorities for their students. If the final outcome is achieved then teachers will have talked with one another so that they have grown linguistically and pedagogically with the ultimate goal that of conducting inservice projects themselves to spread their new expertise among colleagues.

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10

Technoscientific French for Teachers

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The implementation of a two-semester sequence of courses in French for Science and Technology at Eastern Michigan University has responded to alumni demands seeking better linguistic and cultural preparation for entry-level employment in increasingly global businesses and industries. Furthermore interviews with high school teachers enrolled in these courses, as well as information from a recent alumni survey, reveal that course goals and objectives also answer the need for professional upgrading of linguistic skills and cultural knowledge once a career is under way.

The courses in French for Science and Technology were created to complement the two-semester sequence in French for Business and Economy because, for several years, former students at the undergraduate or graduate levels, now employed in international business, have told us that although we have taught them French business practices and terminology as well as the socio-cultural background of the French economy, we have completely ignored their need to learn the general scientific and technical language of the multinationals. As an example, the *Detroit News Magazine* of September 2nd, 1985 relates a story of one of our International Trade Major and Exchange Program students who, upon arriving in Paris for her internship in a medium size enterprise dealing with coal and coal products, was faced with a marketing study of furnaces and burners imported from the United States. Under shock, she strongly reacted with, and I quote, "Hey! I am not supposed to know that stuff. I didn't learn anything like that in school!" and she ran to the U.S. Embassy for help. On the other hand, four graduate students who had taken the two courses in French for Science and Technology offered for the first time at Eastern Michigan University in 1984 felt immediately at ease when, on their internships at General Motors in Strasbourg, they had to deal with automobile parts in varied business situations-such as inventories, purchasing and sales using computers and the "teletex" system. Similarly, another student now employed full-time in Paris by the largest

European wholesaler of food products, Promodés, writes that she had just finished translating a telex from New York dealing with the shipment of IBM equipment.

As the above examples show, the creation of the courses in French for Science and Technology was prompted by students' need, but in addition by the requirements of the business community. Already, at the *Colloque de Français des Affaires* held at Eastern Michigan University in 1981, Executives of Ford Motor Company, General Motors, Renault/American Motors and Chausson Trading Company in Detroit specified that they required advanced linguistic and cultural skills from bilingual employees, and that an in-depth knowledge of technical vocabulary would be acquired on the job. Nonetheless, a general knowledge of the product and the manufacturing process is a desirable point of departure for the learning process. For these reasons, the courses in French for Science and Technology take a "cultural" approach, aimed at teaching a general knowledge of contemporary scientific and technical subjects. An alternative, "functional" approach would be to teach basic communicative skills to established professionals intending to work in a francophone country, e.g. "French for Mechanics" or French for Electrical Engineers". Few universities could, however, justify an upper-level course limited in scope to the functional aspects of a language. The courses' pedagogical goals are as follows:

1. To describe and explain in French, and with the help of audio-visual material and a broad documentation, France's achieved status in high technology and her contribution to European and Western economy.
2. To expand in breadth and in depth the cultural knowledge of students through a study of the international dimension of French firms in their most successful scientific and technical fields.
3. To develop the communicative skills of students of French in the technoscientific fields through reading, writing (compositions and translations), listening and speaking in order to insure that they will have acquired a linguistic competency matching their future employers' expectations.
4. To prepare students for the examinations leading to the *Certificate in Scientific and Technical French* of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Paris. Eastern Michigan University has been approved by the C.C.I.P as an examination center since 1984.

In order to expose students to a wide spectrum of high technological achievements, and to their influence on the French daily life, a large quantity of reading material is presented in a course-pack composed of excerpts from *L'Express*, *L'Expansion*, *Québec-Science*, *Europe*, *The Wall Street Journal*, *The Economist* from London, and most importantly from the *Annual Reports* from France's largest enterprises which can be obtained through a subscription to *L'Expansion*. In addition, the courses include an extensive audio-visual component of slides made from the above mentioned sources and videos provided by the French public and private enterprises. The pedagogical exploitation of slides and videos is fundamental and offers many possibilities which are too varied to be discussed in this paper.

The courses' program of study includes six teaching units or modules. Within each module, the manufacture of specific products, or the providing of services are studied along with the activities of typical French multinational companies and their subsidiaries in the United States as follows:
First semester: A/ Transportation: The T.G.V. (High Speed Train), The Subway System (Matra), Aircrafts and Aerospace (Ariane and Airbus Industries), Automobiles (Renault, Peugeot, Robotics); B/ Food Industry: Generalities on Genetic Engineering, Fermentations, Wine Industry (Moët & Chandon in the U.S.), Milk and Milk Products (BSN-Gervais Danone, Yoplait), Nutrition and Buying Habits of the French; C/ Glass Industry: Manufacturing, Glass Fibers (St. Gobain), Thermal Insulation, Linear Optics (Essilor), Microscopes, Laser and Fiber optics. (Pilot programs in France).
Second semester: A/ Computers: Manufactured Goods (IBM France), CAD & CAM. Databank and Local Networks. Word Processors, Telex. Reproduction. B/ Energy: Coal Mining, Steel Industry, Petroleum, Natural Gas, Hydroelectric Power Plants, Nuclear Power Plants (the Atomic Energy Commission, Electricity of France, Elf-Aquitaine, Texas Gulf); C/ Chemical Industry: Petrochemistry and Plastics, Fertilizers, Resins and Paints, Tar and Asphalt (Group G.D.F. Chimie), Health, Agriculture, Textiles (Rhône-Poulenc in the U.S.), Perfumes, Cosmetics, Hygiene (Oréal in the U.S.), Gelatins (Rousselot in the U.S.), Pharmaceuticals and Veterinarian Products (Roussel UCLAF).

In order to illustrate briefly the linguistic and cultural content of the program of study of these courses, two modules will be briefly described as follows:
Food Industry: The application of micro-organisms' activities, the true base of biotechnologies, are found and explained in the manufacture of cheese, bread, wine and beer. Cheese manufacturing and the classification of cheese

is explained. This prompts a survey of the local supermarkets' cheese displays, and a comparative study of imported and domestic cheeses based on the norms established by the French milk industry. The manufacturing process of yoghurt, the marketing problems encountered for successful implantation of Danone and Yoplait in the United States, the discussion of the merits of the "yoghurt you eat" versus the "yoghurt you drink" make for classes where French becomes a tool for communication of information that pertains to everyday life. Moreover, diversification strategies of such large companies as BSN-Gervais Danone and Yoplait include the manufacturing and the retailing of frozen deserts, beer, bottled water, and of non-alcoholic beverages, all exported to the United States. The module on the "Food Industry" continues with a look at the "bubbly industry," which includes the Perrier Company, the origin of mineral water in general, its conditioning, bottling, packaging, and shipping, now with an added orange or lemon flavor, and in aluminum containers as requested by the airlines, but at a loss to the "Perrier" image. Another "bubbly" product of France is, of course, champagne.

The fermentation of grapes from *Pinot Noir*, *Pinot Meunier*, and *Chardonnay* vines, the maturation of the new wine in bottles for at least a year, the second fermentation due to the addition of sugar and yeast, the *remuage* of the bottles by *remueurs* now replaced by machines, are all part of the "Méthode Champenoise" discovered by Dom Perignon, a XVIIth century monk, and adopted later by French Champagne producers such as Moët-Hennessy and their subsidiaries Moët & Chandon in the Napa Valley in California. An excellent video describing the process in English is immediately reinforced with a twenty minute lecture in French. A bilingual vocabulary is handed-out for the understanding of the reading assignments, and the preparation for small group discussion scheduled for the next class meeting.

The module on the Automotive Industry is of Primordial interest to Michigan students, particularly since a minimum of 10 former students have held full-time jobs at Renault/AMC since 1980, and several have done an internship at La Régie Renault in Billancourt (Paris suburb), or at General Motors in Strasbourg. Graduates (B.A.'s & M.A.'s) have held entry jobs as bilingual and sometimes trilingual secretaries (French/Spanish/English), and most of them have been quickly promoted. Furthermore, one student became an engineer, studying at night at Wayne State University. Although after years of losses the nationalized Régie Renault sold its 46% stake in American Motors to Chrysler, most of our alumni remain employed in the new organization.

The introduction to the Automobile Industry module starts with the description of the basic crank-shaft system, the mechanical principle of the steam engine which was later applied to the internal combustion engine. A slide presentation shows the main components of the automobile, and two videos explain assembly line activities, robots in action, and operations of the Peugeot proving ground. Once or twice per term, former students are invited to describe their specific jobs and activities to the class. For example, one person brought a huge chart to explain the different operations of a Canadian automotive assembly plant, while another lugged brazed aluminum radiators and cooling systems to the classroom in spite of a snowstorm. Finally, while the French automotive industry is not in prominence in the United States today, it is nevertheless important to mention that before World War II, the French car manufacturer Citroën's front wheel drive became famous, and that another French car manufacturer, Peugeot, built the first real aerodynamic car, the Peugeot 302, much too advanced for its time (1938), as was the Chrysler "Airflow" (1934). Today, the record fuel economy among four passenger cars, namely the Peugeot *ECO 2000* and the Renault *Vesta*, are in the forefront of global technology with a record of fuel consumption of 121 miles per gallon. Varied slides originating from the styling department of French companies illustrate this part of the module.

As stated in the course's goals and objectives, this two semester sequence prepares students to take the examinations leading to the Certificate of Scientific and Technical French offered by the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Paris. It is well known that more than 100 universities in the United States now prepare students to take the C.C.I.P. examinations leading to the Certificate, and to the Advanced Diploma of Business French. The first center in the United States for these examinations was established at Eastern Michigan University in 1976. Since 1984, Eastern Michigan University is also the first Center to offer the C.C.I.P. Certificate in Scientific and Technical French. Twenty-five students now possess the Certificate. It should be mentioned that Professor Ketchum at the University of Colorado, and Professor Novack at Ursinus College in Pennsylvania, have also and simultaneously prepared and taught modules for the teaching of Scientific and Technical French within a cultural context.

The Certificate in Scientific and Technical French known as *Certificat pratique des professions scientifiques et techniques* offered by the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Paris is based on proficiency in the following skills:

1. *Reading skills*. The candidates are to read a two-to-three page technical text and must answer twenty related questions in short paragraphs.

2. *Writing skills*. The candidates have the choice of two subjects for a short composition, i.e. a telex concerning a computer program, or a letter requesting technical information on a specific topic.
3. *Listening skills*. The examiner reads a text chosen by the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Paris, or plays a corresponding audio-tape. Candidates answer a questionnaire based on the text.
4. *Oral skills*. The candidates read a scientific, or technical text aloud, and present a synthesis of the text to two members of jury who then question the candidate on the content and meaning of the text. The ungraded examination sheets, and the "Pass" or "Fail" grades are given to the candidates for the oral examination are then sent to Paris where the C.C.I.P. determines the eligibility of the candidates.

In my opinion, the level of difficulty of the examinations leading to the Certificate of Scientific and Technical French places it between the Certificate and the Advanced Diploma in Business French; I disagree, however, with the C.C.I.P., which places these examinations at a lower level then the Certificate of Business French. This can be explained because both the Certificate in Business French and the Certificate in Scientific and Technical French require at least 480 hours of study in the language to reach level 2 (advanced) of the ACTFL/ETS Proficiency Guidelines scale. Furthermore, the course taught at Eastern Michigan University is in essence "cultural" and requires a linguistic preparation reaching level 3 (superior) on the same scale in order to acquire an in-depth knowledge of the subject matter. In addition, I regret that these examinations do not require translating skills because practically all entry level positions in the automotive industry, for example, are for bilingual secretaries-translators who may be promoted within a short time if their language skills, work efficiency, and learning abilities are of high caliber. Furthermore, high school teachers enrolled in our classes in French for Science and Technology (graduate classes) find that translations (French/English and English/French) corrected in class, accompanied by the necessary grammatical explanations and followed by a class discussion on the best possible terminology and syntax, do indeed enhance reading, writing and oral skills in addition to vocabulary acquisition.

Several high school teachers, and among them some Eastern Michigan University alumni, have taken graduate classes in French for Business and Economy, and French for Science and Technology to upgrade not only their language skills, but also their awareness of France's contemporary culture. A 1987 survey of our alumni has shown that these courses received a high rating. In addition, teachers currently enrolled in these classes have given me specific reasons for choosing these courses as follows, and I quote: "For my professional betterment"; "I am interested in cultural facts"; "To increase my students' interest in taking French"; "To open avenues for students in showing them that their knowledge of French can give them an edge when applying for a job"; "For the cultural side of the course"; "To complete my major in French"; "For a second career when I retire after 20 years of teaching"; "For a second career after my children are grown", and "Because *Je yeux être branchée*" — to be "plugged in" — a slang word with a technical connotation meaning to be up-to-date. Finally, a student said "Because I was a Marine, and I am interested in atomic energy." He was delighted to draw an atomic generator schematic on the board, and to show that he knew much more on the subject than I did. These teachers, one of them teaching at the junior high level, have also explained to me their attempts at incorporating our course material in their own classes. In spite of their busy schedules, some of them have devised ingenious ways to introduce science and technology to their students. For examples: presentation of the "word of the day" for a few minutes on the same subject for a week; presentation of the company of the day, the service of the day on the same weekly basis. In order to maintain a high level of interest in their classes, these teachers know that they must give students information that relates to subjects that are important to them possibly because of their own hobbies or the intensive high-tech input received through television. These teachers are in fact giving students an opportunity to draw a bridge or a link in their mind between the scientific and technical vocabulary in both languages, and to develop interests that may lead to further French studies within the context of future academic or professional training.

To summarize, the courses in French for Science and Technology, created to respond to suggestions of alumni from our program of Language and International Trade in accordance with employers' needs in the business and industrial sectors of the Detroit area, have attracted high school teachers as well. These teachers, as other graduate students, wanted not only to upgrade their linguistic skills, but also to be informed about French and European technological and economic culture. In this regard, it should be noticed that the courses in French for Science and Technology, offered at the graduate and undergraduate levels, are not limited to historical achievements, but include recent high-tech achievements of France such as the high speed train (T.G.V.), the Ariane satellite system, or the Minitel system of telecommunications. These are only parts of larger modules and should maintain a high level of interest in advanced classes at the high school level.

In conclusion, we wish once more to make the distinction between the full but limited functional approach, and the broader cultural approach to the teaching of scientific and technical subjects in foreign language i.e., French. Language courses that fulfill the public's need in order to achieve well defined goals have been classified by French pedagogues as "functional" such as "French for Medical Secretaries", or "French for Architects", because they permit learners to practice immediately their profession in a francophone environment. On the other hand, the courses described in the foregoing are given in a "cultural" context. They are first offered to students who expect that the understanding of the subject matter will help them to reach a professional goal. But such courses require also from these students an advanced level of competency in French to assure that they can comprehend and communicate a vast domain of general knowledge and demanding intellectual content across the technoscientific spectrum, independently from their professional achievements.

11

Going International in the Business World:

A Special Purpose Course in Spanish

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Ever since President Carter's Commission issued its gloomy report on the declining status of foreign language and international studies in the U.S., and its dire consequences for an already beleaguered national economy (*Strength Through Wisdom*, 1979), concerned individuals have called attention to this negative trend and have sought ways to reverse it. Government officials and community leaders, among others, have spoken frequently and urgently about the lack of qualified bilingual and multilingual personnel, especially in the area of international trade, while journalists and other writers have called for the enactment of measures, both educational and legislative, to correct this deleterious situation. Associations both public and private, on the other hand, have conducted surveys to ascertain the magnitude of the problem, while various corporate foundations and government agencies have undertaken studies to investigate its causes and to propose solutions (Inman, 1985). Educators, especially foreign language teachers, have also addressed the matter. In addition to making speeches and writing articles underscoring the importance of languages in everyday life, they have held meetings on program design and curriculum and materials development, and they have organized conferences and workshops explaining and demonstrating the latest developments and techniques in methodology and testing. At the same time, they have instituted special language and international studies programs and have formed alliances with business, government and community groups to seek public support for their activities.

To be sure, many of the latter have been aimed at foreign language study in general, but considerable energy has been expended on one sector in particular; foreign language and culture programs and courses for business and the professions. As President Carter's Commission indicated in 1980, and this is still true today, industry and commerce in their international contexts are the areas for which a foreign language and culture capability are sorely needed and are the ones on which America's future will ultimately rest. They are also the areas in which foreign language educators have taken great interest and the ones for which special programs have been designed to meet the multiple and varied needs of U.S. business. That educators have made progress in serving these demands is evident by both the increasing interest and enrollment in such courses as Business French, Technical German, etc. (Uber Grosse, 1985), as well as by the new initiatives being undertaken in methodology, proficiency of testing, and curriculum and materials development. That their efforts have had an impact on the direction, scope and content of second language studies and will continue to do so for decades to come, however, is not only apparent but also commendable and extremely positive (Inman, 1985; Uber Grosse, 1985).

Notwithstanding this new trend and favorable results, educators are only in the early stages of program development for business language courses. They still have much work to do, many decisions to make, and a variety of problems to solve, most important of which are the content, approaches, learning systems, and instructional strategies that are needed for such courses. This paper proposes to treat some of these concerns. Specifically, it will: 1) explain the procedures for setting up a foreign language course of business; 2) describe an exemplary and existing program of study; 3) provide sample syllabi; and 4) discuss and examine some of the possible instructional-learning systems and strategies that can be used in the classroom. Emphasis will be placed on defining objectives, detailing content areas, and analyzing the roles of teacher and student, and special effort will be made to include those items of interest to all instructors of foreign language business courses.

Before any curriculum design, lesson plans or strategies can be initiated for foreign language business courses, the type of program to be set up must be defined. The instructor charged with preparing the course of study must determine, among other things, program objectives, structure and content, and they must decide on instructional format and methodology. They must also select and develop appropriate teaching materials and plan activities suitable for learning. Above all, they must identify the clientele (students, professionals, etc.), ascertain the language needs (oral, writing skills, etc.) and define the fields to be covered for such courses (accountancy, secretarial, marketing, etc.), and they must consider entry and exit requirements as well as instructional levels for the latter. Perhaps, one of the best ways of obtaining this information is via a needs assessment or a market survey. Such a survey, when conducted with a well designed questionnaire, will yield much of the data necessary for constructing the most effective instructional program. However, rather than explain how this process is undertaken, a sample questionnaire concerning the language and cultural needs of business professional has been included as Appendix A. As will be seen, it contains two sets of questions: one directed to business professionals and another to students. Both make inquiries about the language and cultural needs of present and future business personnel and both pose questions about their educational background and training. More importantly, however, both sets ask questions that will assist in determining the topics, format, and, to some degree, the instructional approaches and materials needed to develop a foreign language program for business.

Once the best questionnaire has been designed and administered, and its results are tabulated, the person or persons conducting the survey must prepare a report and present its findings. They must carefully analyze the facts and statistics that have been compiled and state them accurately, and they must discuss how the latter can be used to develop the appropriate foreign language course. They must also consolidate the results of the student and the professional surveys so that a more comprehensive picture of the communication, culture and career needs of both can be obtained and utilized, and they must state their recommendations clearly and precisely. Fortunately, the results and recommendations of such surveys already exist and have been published (Eddy, 1975; Inman, 1978; Cholakian, 1981; Schoonover, 1982). In general, they show the growing importance of foreign language and culture study for business and the professions, but, more importantly, they indicate that with regard to program design, business language courses should consist of those components which reflect the linguistic, cultural, professional and personal needs of its clientele. They should 1) emphasize basic language skills, particularly listening and speaking, to enhance students' ability to function in a variety of business and social situations; 2) devote a segment of the course to the reading and writing of letters and other documents to give students practice using these skills as well as a knowledge of business correspondence; 3) dedicate another segment of the course to the translation of professional and technical writings and oral interpretation to help present and future personnel acquire those skills sorely needed by multinational corporations; 4) dramatize or discuss, preferably with native speakers, business and social situations or problems commonly encountered abroad or in an international context at home to help professionals interface more effectively with foreign nationals; 5) incorporate pertinent readings from specialized texts or journals which will treat the geographic, economic, political, social and legal realities of the countries to give learners a broader view of business and life in them; and 6) integrate a component of small "c" culture, stressing attitudes, values, customs, and commercial practices to make personnel aware of and sensitive to cultural differences. In addition to these considerations, and based on the experience of the present author, these courses should include: 1) general business and/or technical terminology so that students can familiarize themselves with the most commonly used words; 2) the discussion of one or more business subjects (accounting, marketing, secretarial, etc.) to meet learners' needs; 3) a presentation and review of those grammatical items frequently troublesome to students to improve their ability to communicate; and 4) an internship or practical training experience at home or abroad with a firm involved in international trade so that present and future professionals can utilize their training in real-life commercial environments. Of course, special attention should be given to entry and exit requirements, course level and objectives, instructional mode and format, and evaluation procedures and the appropriate instructional materials selected. If these suggestions are followed, then a comprehensive and effective course of foreign language study for business can be designed and implemented, such as the one established in Spanish at Eastern Michigan University.

The Business Spanish program at EMU is a two year one given at the upper division level. It consists of four sequenced courses, the first two taught at the third year level and the second two at the fourth year level of language study, with each one serving as a prerequisite for the next one. Their overall objective is communicative competence for the Spanish-speaking world of business, but their specific goals, format and content vary. In the third year courses, for example, stress is placed on developing the basic skills acquired during the first two years of Spanish language training and on applying them to various Hispanic commercial and cultural contexts. This goal is accomplished in numerous ways but essentially by 1) listening to lectures on topics of business and culture in the Hispanic world; 2) dramatizing and discussing situations, themes and problems peculiar to the Spanish-speaking commercial sector; 3) reading, analyzing and summarizing, orally as well as in writing, articles and selections taken from textbooks, readers, newspapers, and magazines in Spanish, and 4) by becoming familiar with and writing business-related documents. The content of such courses is equally diverse and includes such topics as economics, business and finance, import/export, marketing, management, computer science and statistics as well as those of small "c" culture – attitudes, values, customs, and business practices – with a focus on Spain and Spanish America. Entry requirements for the third-year business courses, on the other hand, are two years of Spanish at the elementary and intermediate levels and a course of Spanish composition, while evaluation procedures comprise a number of mastery, achievement and proficiency tests, including, upon request, the Madrid Chamber of Commerce

Exam, which issues a certificate and diploma attesting to the various levels of students' communicative proficiency in Spanish and their knowledge of certain business and economic subjects related to Spain.

The fourth-year Business Spanish courses continue the aforementioned training process but with different aims and orientations. At this level emphasis is placed on achieving a higher degree of communicative proficiency and on mastering more complex language skills, while the courses themselves focus on business procedures and practices and the everyday realities of the Hispanic world. Sophisticated exercises such as the preparation and presentation of oral and written reports on business and economics in Spain and Spanish America are undertaken, while considerable time is spent on developing translation and interpreting skills. Discussions of the geographic, economic, political, social and legal realities of the twenty Spanish-speaking countries also are conducted weekly, while the cultural themes introduced in the third-year sequence continue to be integrated in all aspects of the fourth-year program. Although evaluation procedures for the latter are similar to their 300-level counterparts, some teaching strategies and most instructional materials of the fourth-year courses differ in approach, content and difficulty. Moreover, the advanced courses can be taken for graduate as well as undergraduate credit, though with different entrance and exit requirements. In general, the entire EMU program seeks to provide students with a comprehensive, relevant and effective course of study designed to prepare them for careers in the Spanish-speaking world of business and, to date, has been rather successful: over twenty students have received the Madrid Chamber of Commerce certificate and well over 70% have obtained business administration positions with international companies (Dugan, 1988). However, to give instructors a clearer idea of the type, scope and content of the EMU Program, sample course syllabi for the third-year courses have been included in Appendix B.

As will be noted, these syllabi are designed for a two-semester sequence of Business Spanish offered at the third-year level. The first syllabus delineates the program for the first semester, while the second one outlines that of the second semester. Both have the same format and are divided into several parts, followed by a general course description which is applicable to both. The first or top section of each syllabus indicates the title, prerequisites, number of credits and level of each course, while the following section states the texts to be used. The third section lists the various business and cultural topics to be treated each week as well as some of the in-class activities and specifies the schedule for periodic examinations. The final section or course description provides an overview of the general areas to be covered and explains the different instructional formats and activities to be utilized.

It also defines the objectives and evaluation procedures to be adopted and mentions some of the teaching strategies and instructional materials. Both syllabi present a carefully planned, highly structured and cohesive program of Business Spanish geared to the career-minded student.

The next and, perhaps, most important phase of designing and implementing Business language courses is lesson planning. Lesson planning is the procedure by which teachers take the various components described in a course syllabus – objectives, materials, content areas, approaches and methods – and develop from them, and in a logical and sequential order, the activities and strategies to be undertaken in the classroom. Each objective is student-centered and focuses on the latter's ability: 1) to improve aural skills via dictation; 2) to learn terms commonly used in marketing; 3) to participate in a discussion of marketing concepts; 4) to carry on a marketing interview; 5) to write a commercial letter requesting marketing information; 6) to read for discussion, comprehension and general knowledge a newspaper article concerning a typical marketing problem in Spain; 7) to complete grammar review and translation exercises using marketing terms to improve writing skills for business contexts; and 8) to discuss the manner in which business is conducted in a Spanish-speaking country to make students sensitive to cultural differences. These objectives are followed by a list of the various instructional materials that will be used in each lesson and include textbooks as well as other written and audio-visual aids. The plan concludes with a description of the learning activities to be undertaken – a variety of aural-oral, written, and reading exercises which fulfill the student objectives – and specifies the sequence and time-frame in which they are to be carried out. It is a comprehensive plan of action designed to meet learner needs and is designed to improve the latter's overall performance for business related situations.

While program design, syllabi, and lesson planning are essential to the development of foreign language business courses, instructional and learning systems and strategies are equally crucial. They determine how the courses are taught and they influence, to a great degree, how well students will perform. In general, the types of learning or teaching methods used, will depend on the objectives, focus, and lesson plan for the course as well as on the instructional approach. For example, if the lesson aims for a mastery of the types of correspondence, procedures and practices used in the business world, the instructor will concentrate on letter-writing, reading, lectures and discussions to realize these goals. If, on the other hand, the purpose of the course is to try to achieve oral proficiency, then the person in charge will emphasize, though not exclusively, such methods as role-playing, structured and spontaneous conversations, presentation of reports, and other speaking activities. The same will be true if the aims of the course are reading competence, proficiency in translation or interpreting or those related directly to acquiring a knowledge of cultural differences and business practices. The techniques utilized to achieve each of these goals must be those that will help students gain mastery of the particular skill and subject matter being taught. While many strategies have been developed and published for general language instruction, only a few have been "marketed" and written about for business language classes. The ones most commonly mentioned are those used to teach letter writing and oral communication skills for commercial purposes and situations.

With respect to commercial correspondence, one of the most interesting instructional techniques is the one developed by James W. Brown of Ball State University (1977). Applied to all aspects of letter writing. Brown's strategy comprises several parts and is structured on the learning packet concept of individualized instruction. It begins with a statement of clearly defined objectives : "Upon completion of this packet, students should be able to: 1) identify some of the major differences in mailing customs between U.S. and Hispanic countries; 2) read and address letters; 3) read and write informal letters to the students level of proficiency; and 4) read and write some types of business letters at the students' level of proficiency" (Brown, p. 4). It follows with a list of verbs commonly used in correspondence and asks students to master their past and present forms after a teacher-directed review. Once this phase is successfully completed, the next one explains how students are to undertake the activities for each of the four subsequent lessons. The instructions and activities for this phase focus on reading assignments concerning the subject covered in each unit as well as on a series of self-correcting written exercises. The four units are: 1) Mailing customs in the U.S. and Spanish speaking countries, 2) Addresses and envelopes, 3) Informal letters, and 4) Business letters. The strategies used in the last lesson will be of particular interest to neophyte business language teachers because the author outlines each one in detail. Briefly, he begins by contrasting commercial correspondence in the U.S. to that of Spanish-speaking countries and notes that, while English business letters are generally brief and to the point, Spanish letters tend to be more formal and flowery. He then lists the opening and closing phrases in Spanish, giving their various uses, and includes a model business letter for a discussion of style and content. He follows this with a series of building-block type of written exercises — from completing sentences of a letter in Spanish to the complete translation from English into Spanish of another, all with answer —, and concludes with a letter-writing assignment to be corrected by the instructor. These activities are carefully developed and consider all phases of correspondence needed to help students acquire good letter-writing skills.

As for oral communication, the strategies used to help develop this skill are even more impressive than the ones utilized for mastering letter-writing. A case in point is the technique used in a Swiss-French ESL Program (Rivas, 1975). The instructors devised a rather unique method for training their present and future international business managers in oral communication skills. First, realizing the need to simulate a real-life business setting, they transformed the classroom into a conference room, thereby simulating the real situation and preparing the students psychologically for what was to take place. Next, using a functional catalogue of 300 kernel sentences transcribed from tapes and notes made at actual business meetings, they prepared instructional materials and developed a tape program for use in the classroom. For the most part, these materials consist of a series of oral and written exercises and are part of a rather complex learning system. The latter, the mainspring for the entire program, in turn, is a mixture of several methods and approaches — audiolingual, notional functional, structural situational, etc. — and comprises three stages. During the first stage, the students, who are already fluent in English, making this an advanced-level program, learn the lexicon and variations of the 300 phrases via oral drills that goes from the most to the least structured and from the syntactically least simple to the most complex. They then practice several additional business dialogues based on the aforementioned phrases and learn them via a series of taped exercises. Like the previous step, this one stresses speaking, but also focuses on the affective, natural and sociolinguistic aspects of language learning. Once this phase is completed, students proceed to more unstructured conversations by means of dialogue adaptations. These are also of the situational variety and range from the easy to the more difficult. In the final stage, students are asked to undertake, in the conference room, spontaneous business conversations which approximate those found in real life. These strategies, as the article in which they are described attests, help learners complete each task successfully and lead to their ability to function more effectively in actual business situations. These strategies, no doubt, could be used for similar purposes and with equal results in other languages.

The various aspects of program design, syllabi and lesson planning, systems of learnings, and teaching strategies for foreign language business classes have been presented and explicated in this paper. From the information gathered and discussed it would seem that in order to construct such a program some very concrete and well-defined steps of organization and development must be undertaken. These include: 1) the preparation and conducting of a well-designed survey which will identify the specific learning objectives, content areas, modes of instruction and types of activities that will meet professionals' needs; 2) the structuring and preparation of a program and syllabus or syllabi which will reflect the findings of the needs assessment, especially regarding course requirements, level, objectives, subject areas and approaches; 3) the organization and development of materials, lesson plans, learning systems and teaching strategies which will help realize the needs of students; and 4) the evaluation of all phases and aspects of the program particularly instructor and learner performances, to assess areas of strength and weakness and to improve overall effectiveness. Of course this entire procedure implies the undertaking of much research and experimentation in nontraditional areas of language learning, especially with regard to content and instructional approaches, and suggests that some retooling may be in order, not a bad thing in itself. It also indicates the need for seeking and developing new bonds of cooperation between educators at all levels – elementary through college – and in related fields – business, art, sciences, etc., – as well as new ties between education, business, government and other community sectors so that the tasks at hand can be accomplished successfully. In short, it means time, imagination, flexibility and hard work. The challenges, opportunities and satisfaction that will accrue, however, should more than offset the energy expended in these efforts.

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Appendix A

(a) Possible Questions to Assess Professionals' Educational Needs

1) What is the name of your employer? What is the nature of your operation?
2) How many employees are there?
3) If any of your employer's operation is foreign, which geographical area does the latter include?
4) What percentage of the staff is based overseas? Where?
5) If your employer's operation is totally domestic, do you have clients who are foreign nationals or non-English speaking? What are their countries of origin?
6) Which sectors or areas of your employer's operation require a knowledge of foreign languages and for what purpose?
7) Which languages and language skills (speaking, reading, writing, translation, etc.) would be useful to staff employed in these areas and for what purposes?
8) If a knowledge of cultures were equally valuable to the staff cited above, which cultures and aspects of culture would be most important?
9) What percentage of the staff has a survival language capability and in which languages?
10) What countries has staff visited, when, and for how long?
11) What problems, professional, linguistic and cultural has staff encountered at home and/or abroad?

12) What language/culture training, if any, does your employer provide?
13) Which of the following instructional-learning approaches would you prefer as a part of intercultural training: a) cognitive/didactic (lecture discussion), b) affective/personal (behavioral studies), 3) practical/functional (situational) or 4) experiential (a combination of the above approaches)?
14) Would your employer be interested in a training program that would meet the language and cultural needs of staff members working in intercultural or international settings?

(b) **Possible Questions to Assess Students' Educational Needs**

1) In what field are you currently seeking a position? If known, what are its title and responsibilities?
2) What language(s), if any, would you use professionally or personally? Which have you studied in the last three years for at least two years?
3) Which culture(s) would you like to have a knowledge and understanding of?
4) Would you enroll in a foreign language culture course that would complement your professional training?

Appendix B

a) **Sample syllabus — Business Spanish Course: 1st Semester**

Business Spanish	3 credits
Prerequisite: 2 years of Spanish or permission of instructor	Level: 3rd year

Required texts: *Intercultural Communicating*: Provo, Utah: Language and Intercultural Research Center, Brigham Young University, 1982.

Mayers, Marvin. *A Look at Latin American Life-Styles*. Dallas: International Museum of Cultures, 1982.

Santos, Nelly. *Español comercial*. New York, Harper & Row, 1981.

Program

Week	
1st	Introduction: overview of course. Culture: self-awareness (dimension of personality, concept of self and perception).
2nd 3rd	Business Administration and Management: temrs, readings, business form letters and contracts. Culture: self-awareness (prejudice, growth and development, creativity). Hispanic culture: value systems.
4th 5th	Banking operations: terms, readings, letters of credit and information, bills of exchange. Hispanic culture: concept of time and space and art forms. Exam I.
6th 7th	Real estate: terms, readings, related correspondence. Hispanic sayings, proverbs gestures, social proprieties.
8th	Oral reports: interviews, role-playing for business situations, interpreting. Hispanic culture: the family and life-styles.
9th 10th	Accounting and Bookkeeping: terms, readings, letters requiring payment, business ledgers. Hispanic culture: social classes and religion. Exam II.
11th 12th	Credit and Finance: terms, readings, letters soliciting credit and protesting non-payment of bills. Hispanic culture: education, mass media and recreation.
13th 14th	Business Law: terms, readings, letters granting power of attorney, legal documents. Hispanic culture: political and judicial systems.
15th	Oral reports: interviews, role-playing of business situations, interpreting. Hispanic culture: the military.
	Final exam and oral practicum.

b) **Sample syllabus – Business Spanish Course: 2nd Semester**

Business Spanish	3 credits
Prerequisite: Business Spanish 1st semester	Level: 3rd year

Required texts: *Latin America*, rev. ed., Provo, Utah, Language and Intercultural Research Center, Brigham Young University, 1979.

Reindorp, Reginald. *Spanish American Customs, Cultures & Personality*. Macon, Georgia: Wesleyan College, 1968 (copies on reserve in library).

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Program

Week	
1st	Introduction: overview of course. Hispanic culture: geography (Spain).
2nd 3rd	Macro- and micro-economics: terms, readings, sales and international payment letters, suppliers' memos and vouchers. Hispanic culture: geography (Mexico, Central America, Caribbean).
4th 5th	Statistics, data processing, computers: terms, readings, programming, short reports; questionnaires and surveys. Hispanic culture: geography (South America).
6th 7th	Secretarial and office management: terms, readings, memoranda, telegrams, cablegrams, receipts. Hispanic culture: economic reality of Spain and South America.
8th	Oral presentations: interviews, role-playing of business situations, interpreting. Hispanic culture: economic reality of Mexico, Central America and the Caribbean.
9th 10th	Marketing Management and international marketing: terms, readings, marketing reports, letters of consignment, import/export documents. Hispanic culture: concepts and attitudes in U.S.-Hispanic business relations. Exam II
11th 12th	Advertising and sales: terms, readings, advertisements, letters requesting catalogues and prices, purchase orders, invoices. Hispanic culture: business customs and practices.
13th 14th	Transportation and insurance: terms, readings, shipping invoices, claim and adjustment letters, insurance and transportation forms. Hispanic culture: business customs and practices.
15th	Oral presentations: interviews, role-playing of business situations, interpreting. Hispanic culture: summary and conclusions.
	Final exam and oral practicum.

c) Description and requirements for Business Spanish courses: First and Second Semesters

These sequence courses are designed for students preparing for careers in international business and economics particularly as they relate to the Spanish-speaking world.

Terms common to the multiple fields of business, commerce and economics will be presented and studied as will some of the related concepts. Readings concerning the different business areas (marketing, finance, accounting, advertising, business administration, macro- and micro-economics, etc.) will be undertaken for discussion and the composition of the various types of commercial correspondence and documentation will be introduced and will also engage in real-life situations peculiar to the business world via oral situational role plays. They will also familiarize themselves not only with the distinctive professional conventions of Spanish and Spanish American business meetings and procedures, but will become knowledgeable of the attitudes, customs, manners, and life-styles of their Spanish-speaking counterparts. Moreover, translation exercises dealing with the commercial themes and correspondence will be undertaken as will interpreting practicums dealing with specific business situations. Finally, lectures on the different aspects of Spanish and Spanish American cultures will be given weekly and grammar reviewed as necessary. Films, slides and other audio-visual aids, including videotapes, will be used in addition to the required texts and articles and other selections culled from newspapers and magazines to provide students with a comprehensive course of instruction.

The objectives for both courses are four-fold: 1) to help students develop communicative competence in Spanish for all the skills — listening, speaking, reading, and writing — for business and business-related situations and undertakings; 2) to provide them with a knowledge of the terminology, practices, procedures, and documents used in international business; 3) to familiarize learners with the socio-economic, political and geographical realities of the Spanish-speaking world as well as with the latter's customs, traditions, attitudes and values; and 4) to give students some understanding of basic business concepts, practices and customs in Spain and Spanish America.

Oral and written examinations will be administered periodically and quizzes given as needed. Several oral and written reports on specific business and business-related topics will also be required as will participation in all other classroom activities. Other projects will be assigned and graded during the course of both semesters and students performance judged according to their level of 1) communicative proficiency, 2) cross-cultural awareness and sensitivity, and 3) knowledge, use and understanding of business terms, concepts, correspondence and documents.

12

The Videocassette Challenge:

Strategies for the Foreign Language Teacher

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Making the Case for Videocassettes

Today American spend almost as much time watching television as they do working at their jobs. Are viewers influenced by what they see while watching hour after hour? Manufacturers seem to feel that television can have a profound impact on behavior. After all, they spend billions of dollars per year on commercials intended to convince viewers to buy their products. Politicians are also impressed with television's potential. Each election year they pour millions into political ads that depict their candidates as saints and their opponents as sinners.

Television obviously has immense appeal for students. Can instructors tap video's potential for the classroom and turn this instrument of entertainment into an instrument of education? How can video programming be used to facilitate students' efforts to learn a foreign language? If videos are to make a significant contribution to classroom teaching, they must offer advantages not easily achieved through regular teaching techniques and other media.

Special Qualities of Foreign Language Videos

Robert Ariew points to some of the advantages of video. Unlike slides it provides motion and illustrates scenes, actions and processes (Ariew, p. 47). Also, unlike films it is almost noise free and very flexible. It can be paused, advanced, reversed and even removed from the machine at exactly the frame where the instructor wants to continue the next lesson. It is also less expensive than film and more easily available than videodisc.

Frequently one hears that students face some difficulty when they leave language classes and study under a different teacher or travel to a foreign country to practice what they have learned in the classroom. Students report trouble making adjustments as they listen to new accents, different speaking styles, or the idioms of a particular region. They are accustomed to the language of their classroom teachers, and the language of other speakers at first hearing may sound no more understandable to them than one they have never heard. Adjustment to new intonation and rhythm patterns comes painfully. The learning experience can develop much more effectively, however, if students hear different styles and accents in videotaped programs.

Exposure to a variety of voices prepares students for the real world of language diversity and helps them to understand everyday speech. Obviously, an overabundance of exposure to informal styles can prove confusing in the early years of study, but if students receive at least moderate amount of exposure, they will find themselves better prepared to face the world beyond the classroom. Also, when students watch actors encounter each other in a dramatic setting, they hear language spoken at a normal pace, rather than the slower, well-articulated classroom pronunciation. In short, video programs prepare students to understand situations involving rapid, animated, and sometimes even slurred conversation. They enable students to understand a variety of people whose voices reflect a myriad of class, ethnic, and regional backgrounds. As Pierre J. Capretz, French professor at Yale University, notes, the language of the video is idiomatic and natural (Hosley, p. 3).

Furthermore, watching real-life situations and conversations on videotape helps take students beyond formal textbook exercises. Capretz says, "Television enables us to bring France right into the student's living room. It offers us the chance to give students direct contact with the French people, just as if they had traveled there. Yet we are able to structure the contact so that it becomes a language lesson" (p. 3).

Producers of videotapes show considerable savvy about the tastes of today's generation, and they often present their material in a soap opera format. The language suddenly appears much more interesting and relevant as students listen in the context of budding romance, broken love, conspiracy, hopes, dreams, ambition, and disappointment. For a generation that grew up with *As the World Turns*, videotapes make compelling entertainment. They educate without reminding the students constantly that they are participating in the learning process.

Using Video in the Classroom

There are a variety of ways one can employ video materials in the classroom. There are no airtight solutions, no techniques applicable to all situations. The instructor will want to experiment with individual groups of students and select the approaches that work best. What are some of the familiar problems, and possible solutions?

One difficulty is related to the length of feature films which often run for 90 to 120 minutes, a stretch that does not work well for the typical class period of 50 or 75 minutes. Through experimentation, one discovers that it is not necessary to show an entire film at one time. To ensure that there is adequate time and opportunity to discuss both language and message, a viewing of a 15-minute segment often works well. Sometimes one can proceed with the rest of the film in serial form, showing additional 15-minute excerpts once or twice a week until the entire story has been examined. This "serial" approach works marvelously in the showing of Argentina's gripping drama, *La historia oficial* (Almi Pictures). Students are motivated to see the ensuing portions of the story in order to learn what happens to the leading characters.

The use of a single 15-minute segment also works effectively without follow-on. Students do not need to witness the entire drama to gain something of value from it. The important task for the instructor is to preview the film and select that portion which particularly rivets attention, shows important examples of language usage, and stimulates discussion. Then it can be taken into the classroom with specific activities and objectives in mind.

Another problem is that students often have difficulty understanding the story and the language at the same time. They miss much when they must simultaneously make sense of the characters' backgrounds, follow the thread of the story, and interpret the language. Efforts to understand what is occurring in the drama can become a strenuous and frustrating exercise if students lack a good introduction to the subject of study. In advance of class presentation of a dramatic film, the instructor should provide a brief written description of the principal characters as well as a short "treatment" or outline of the plot. If the film segment contains slang or idioms, it is worthwhile to introduce them to the students in the preview period. The students can then watch the program with particular satisfaction as they come to understand the slang in the context of the story. It is also useful to provide students with a brief list of questions to be discussed following viewing of the video. This prepares them for the kind of analysis that will be expected of them and helps to give them direction. It ensures that their viewing experience will be active, not passive.

Classroom work with video suggests one important conclusion about the instructor's role. The instructor must do considerable preparatory work to make media-based education a success. Attempts to introduce a little video material just to make classroom work more interesting will produce little gain. Video instruction works effectively only when the teacher does essential groundwork, carefully previewing the tapes and preparing material to help students focus on what is important and new.

Selecting Materials

The proper selection of video equipment and materials is crucial to incorporating video successfully into the classroom. There are many types of commercially available videocassettes and the variety is growing rapidly. One sees a constantly expanding market, an increasing number of dealers, and ever-larger catalogues.

Very little equipment is needed for a basic video program: one videocassette player or recorder connected to one television monitor. The VCR features should include "shuttle search" and "freeze frame/pause." Both allow the picture to remain on the screen when they are activated; the first is useful for replaying short segments, the second for stopping to discuss a still frame. A color video projector is an added plus for wide-screen viewing in large classrooms and auditoriums.

Choosing Videocassettes

In the selection of videocassettes, the following items should be considered when making orders for rental or purchase:

1. *Categories of videocassettes and subject matter.* The choice of subject matter should be determined by the teacher's purpose or goal in using videocassettes and by the students' level of experience. Most available materials will fall into one or more of the following categories: travel, history, art, sociology, anthropology, literature and literary materials (plays, dramatizations of novels, poetry readings, biographies of authors), musical presentations, feature-length films, silent films, animated

cartoons, television commercials and programs, "soap operas" and dramatic serials, specialty videos (cooking demonstrations, exercise and physical fitness instruction), tapes made to supplement textbooks, and tapes made strictly for language instruction (the Berlitz series, the Language Plus Survival Course, the BBC Foreign Language Series). This wide variety of materials provides for a good range of levels of difficulty and gives the teacher the opportunity to choose the materials that are most appropriate for the students' proficiency level and the teacher's goal for a given activity.

2. *Video sizes and formats.* Most materials are available on VHS and Beta. The low cost of the VHS ½" tape makes it the most popular.
3. *Languages used and subtitles.* Materials are available recorded in English only, foreign language only, and foreign language with English subtitles. In addition, many feature-length films originally produced in English are available dubbed in foreign languages. The use of the last group cannot be recommended; the lack of coordination of sounds, lip movements, and facial expressions can be very confusing. Some videocassette dealers make special offers for videocassettes purchased with both English and foreign language sound tracks.
4. *Length.* This varies from a few minutes for television commercials to two to three hours for a feature-length film or several hours for a complete dramatic serial or instructional series. Segments of a videocassette as short as one minute can be used effectively.
5. *Cost.* The cost may range from $39.00 or less for a single videocassette to as much as $4,000.00 for a complete series. The low cost of videocassettes is one factor that makes them so appealing for classroom use. (To give an example: a 16mm film from Films for the Humanities which lists for $975.00 can be purchased for $199.00 on videocassette.)
6. *Date or original filming.* The date is very important if the instructor is looking for contemporary materials. Many older films are being reissued as videocassettes and slide series and filmstrips are also being converted to videocassette format.

7. *Color versus black and white*. While most new materials are in color, and color is normally more interesting and useful, classic films produced in black and white should not be overlooked or rejected simply because they lack color.
8. *Ratings of feature-length films*. Ratings are often not available. The teacher must preview and make his or her own rating or judgment as to the appropriateness of the material for the age group and teaching situation, especially when dealing with foreign-made films.
9. *Preview, purchase, and rental policies*. Many dealers will send videocassettes for "preview with intent to purchase." It is usually easier to use this procedure through the school library or purchasing department rather than as an individual instructor. Some dealers lease or offer memberships in rental clubs. However, it is probably best to purchase, considering the time and effort expended in making supplementary materials to use with videocassettes. After developing exercises and activities for a particular videocassette, the teacher will want to have that videocassette available for future use.
10. *Teaching aids*. Some videocassettes come with free-of-charge teachers' guides or with student booklets which may be purchased separately. These written aids include vocabulary lists, pre- and post-viewing exercises and activities, scripts, and synopses.

Keeping these ten considerations in mind, the teacher must become familiar with the catalogues of a number of dealers (see Appendix). With the rapid growth of the industry, new videocassettes and ancillaries are appearing monthly. Teachers accepting the challenge of videocassettes will want to have their names added to all mailing lists possible and will need to watch for new companies entering the market.

Using Videocassettes Effectively

The use of videotape as a motivational and supplementary activity to what students often view as routine classroom work requires much planning and preparation. Many decisions have to be made far in advance of the introduction of the tape into the classroom. The instructor must decide what specific purpose a given tape is to serve. For example, a videotape may be particularly appropriate for study of a variety of grammatical points (e.g., object pronouns, command forms, past tenses, etc.), vocabulary building, theme writing, conversational activities, and cultural enrichment.

The first step toward use of a videotape will be to view it, perhaps several times, taking note of possible classroom uses and then deciding at what point in the particular course the video or segments of it can best be introduced. If the tape has an accompanying teacher's guide or activity booklet, then much of the preparatory work may already be done. If not, the instructor will need to devise activities, including vocabulary lists and work sheets. Preparation may include, at least for brief segments, a "script" of the segment for use as a reference. For longer videotapes, notes taken during the previewing can serve as a later guide. Writing the script or taking notes gives most of the material needed for compiling vocabulary lists and also makes apparent the grammatical structures used in the videotape.

Watching visual images carefully is essential for identifying unspoken vocabulary items necessary for describing the content of the video. For instance, the action of a particular segment of a Spanish film may occur at the side of a lake with boats, fishermen, and mountains in the background while the words *lago*, *barco*, *pescador*, and *montaña* are never spoken. The instructor will wish to supply such terms in order to aid the students in expressing their own thoughts about the film.

Once the specific use to be made of the videotape has been decided, it is time to prepare for its presentation in the classroom. Classroom use should be carefully structured and lead toward the accomplishment of feasible and well-defined goals. A structure that works exceedingly well for most kinds of videotapes and can be easily modified for others is a plan of three stages adapted from Goldberg's *Video Guide to Accompany Videocassettes from Radio Televisión Española* (pp. vii–viii). A similar method, though less obviously stated, is also discernible in Lonergan's comprehensive *Video in the Language Classroom*. The three stages are: (1) introduction, (2) comprehension check, and (3) follow-up.

In the introductory stage the instructor lays the groundwork for deriving maximum benefit from the videotape—introduction of vocabulary and review of grammatical structures to be emphasized. Vocabulary lists and grammatical review are presented in one class meeting in anticipation of viewing the tape in the following one, or the lists are distributed and review is assigned as homework. Vocabulary lists should be kept to a minimum and include only obviously essential items. Focusing on just two or three grammatical structures at a time keeps the material from becoming unwieldy and does not overwhelm the students. Necessary cultural information is also presented during the introductory stage to provide appropriate background for the tape.

When this preparation has been completed, a "preview" is given to the class introducing only short selected portions of a segment to reinforce key vocabulary and grammatical structures. The instructor must decide in advance which parts of the videotape are most appropriate. The preview serves to make the students more comfortable with the videotape; they see important characters and hear the language spoken. This also whets their curiosity much as the previews of coming attractions do at the movie theater. After the in-class preview, materials to be used in the second stage are distributed and examined so that students will know to look and listen for certain items.

During stage two, the comprehension check, the segment is shown from beginning to end, with pauses at intervals. At these intervals comprehension is measured by means of the previously planned activities. This check should be viewed not as a test but as a guide to the students' understanding of the recorded material. Comprehension activities may include questions to be answered regarding content and statements to be marked *true* or *false* (*cierto-falso*, *vrai-faux*, *richtig-falsch*, etc.). If the goal is vocabulary acquisition and reinforcement, word lists are prepared and students are asked to check items mentioned and/or seen on the videotape. These lists should be limited to material pertinent to the understanding of the videotape. The advantage of teacher-made lists is that students can simply mark items without having their attention diverted from the videotape. This is a form of note taking described by Lonergan (pp.20–29) which can be abandoned in favor of true note taking as the students' ability in the language increases. A second advantage is that students have the words written correctly before them. They are not encouraged to reinforce misspellings of the vocabulary items.

The comprehension check affords an excellent opportunity for oral work in the language. At each section pause, students respond to comprehension questions based on content and are encouraged to use the grammatical structures being emphasized. Students may also be asked to summarize the content of the section viewed and to express their reactions to it, or they can make brief notes at section pauses and summarize everything at the end of a segment.

During the comprehension check, the various functions available on the videocassette player are particularly valuable; they offer this medium a distinct advantage over the use of film projector and screen. The rewind feature allows for quick repetition of a section for clarification or reinforcement. Another possibility is to replay a section with the volume turned down while students comment on or describe the characters and action. If the VCR is equipped with a "freeze frame/pause" feature, the action can be frozen for discussion of the still picture. Depending on the length of the segment, the comprehension check may be extended over several class periods until the instructor is satisfied that students understand the segment and have achieved appropriate mastery of the grammatical constructions.

During the third stage, the follow-up, the entire videotape or lengthy segment is viewed without interruption and activities of a more creative type are introduced following the viewing. For example, if the students have seen a video set in a provincial town, they can comment on or write a short description of life in that town and the life-style of the characters portrayed. If they are familiar through previous study or experience with life in Paris, Frankfurt, or Mexico City, they might compare life in the small town and the large city. One of the exciting aspects of the follow-up stage is that students will be struck by certain things not noticed by the instructor. Thus, students themselves participate in the selection of themes for follow-up activities.

Using Commercials

Versatile tapes for use at the elementary level are those containing collections of television commercials. Commercials are short and can be shown in their entirety in a matter of minutes and they are designed to be viewed again and again. Also, they generally have catchy tunes or phrases which quickly become embedded in the students' minds. The following plan shows what can be done with three Spanish commercials from Teacher's Discovery's *Comerciales en español* (Trix, McDonald's, Capri-Sun):

> Purposes of activity: to build vocabulary, to demonstrate uses of *para*, *hay*, and verbs like *gustar*; to heighten awareness of Hispanic presence in the United States.

A. Introduction
  1. Play the commercials in their entirety.
  2. Distribute materials for vocabulary and language focus.
    a. Review vocabulary.
    b. Review uses of *para*, *hay*, and verbs like *gustar*.
  3. Tell students what to listen for:
    a. "Trix es para niños, no para conejos."

        b. "No hay más papitas."
        c. "A los niños les encanta y también a su mamá."
    4. Have students invent new sentences using *para*, *hay*, *encantar*.
B. Comprehension check
    1. Play each commercial separately, repeating it or sections of it as needed.
    2. Complete comprehension activities:
        a. Word lists (foods)
        b. Informational questions
        c. Multiple choice or true-false exercises
        d. Oral summary
C. Follow-up
    1. Play all three commercials without interruption.
    2. Activities:
        a. Have students tell differences in these commercials and the ones they are accustomed to seeing and hearing in English.
        b. Have students explain why these commercials are shown on television in the United States and mention places where they would likely be seen.

Dubbing a Travel Film

A productive activity for intermediate to advanced students is dubbing (having the students supply their own foreign-language commentary or narration for a tape with English sound track). In this activity, the students read their compositions aloud to the class while the video is shown with the volume turned down. Or they record it outside of class on a tape recorder and then play it in class while the video runs silently (Lonergan, pp. 77–79).

Travel films made to attract American tourists to the various foreign countries are an ideal choice for the dubbing activity. While there may be a tendency in these films to show only the attractive and "quaint" features of the particular country and to overemphasize those with which the American tourist can identify, they are nevertheless of professional quality and have excellent photography. They are also bound to include (even if in visual images only) important historical, architectural, and cultural information which can be of benefit to students. For this activity, the basic plan outlined above must be varied. The comprehension check as such is no longer needed since the original commentary is in English; then the three stages become: (1) introduction, (2) writing activity and (3) follow-up.

Using Feature Films

Full-length feature movies require special attention. Feature movies are best used with advanced classes. If they come with English subtitles, these may be masked with a strip of paper taped to the bottom of the screen so that students are forced to concentrate on the spoken language. During a subsequent repetition of a section the students can listen and look at the subtitles for mistranslations or omissions. For classroom use the feature movie must be broken into segments that can be treated in class according to the three-stage plan. If the film is to be viewed in its entirety, it must be presented in serial form much like a soap opera.

Students are accustomed to the soap opera format and will have no objection to this type of presentation. As the movie progresses, each new section may be preceded by a summary of the previous day's action, presented in the target language either by the teacher or by a student assigned the task for the day. Another approach, especially good for college classes in which time is limited, is to assign viewing of the movie outside of class (in the library or language lab) to be followed by in-class viewing and discussion of selected scenes.

Some feature movies lead the class to develop more sophisticated projects such as investigation or study of a particular historical period, a social problem, or customs. The movie may be viewed as a work of art and discussion of film techniques can take place—symbolism, flash-back, setting, characterization, motivation, etc. An example of a film that lends itself well to investigatory projects is the aforementioned and widely available *La historia oficial*. For this film, students can be assigned projects based on the tragedy of the *desaparecidos* or on more general topics like the history of Argentina, the cultural diversity of the country, etc. Because other events such as the Malvinas crisis are mentioned in the film, the problems and situations represented by such events may be researched and discussed as a follow-up activity.

Meeting the Challenge

The videocassette challenge can be met successfully and enjoyably by teachers and students and financial investment does not have to be great. After a small initial investment a videocassette collection can be enlarged year by year. However, the instructor must make a commitment to invest a substantial amount of time and energy in the preparation of well-organized exercises and activities for the incorporation of video into the total classroom experience. The three-stage presentation plan discussed above provides a simple but flexible basis for the development of supplementary materials. The yield from the investment of money, time, and energy is apparent in the positive reactions and improved language skills of the students.

Appendix

Selected Videocassette Sources

CONSULATE GENERAL OF THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC of GERMANY
1000 Peachtree Center Cain Tower
229 Peachtree Street, N.E. Telephone: (404) 659-4760
Atlanta, Georgia 30043-3201

CROSSROADS VIDEO
15 Buckminster Lane Telephone: (516) 365-3715
Manhasset, New York 11030

FACETS MULTIMEDIA
1517 W. Fullerton Avenue Telephone: (312) 281-9075
Chicago, Illinois 60614

FILMS FOR THE HUMANITIES
P. O. Box 2053 Telephone: (800) 257-5126
Princeton, New Jersey 08543

FILMS INCORPORATED
5547 North Ravenswood Avenue Telephone: (800) 323-4222
Chicago, Illinois 60640 Illinois: (312) 878-2600

FOLK DANCE VIDEOS INTERNATIONAL
10100 Park Cedar Dr., Suite 110 Telephone: (704) 542-9404
Charlotte, North Carolina 28210

GOETHE INSTITUTE ATLANTA
German Cultural Center Telephone: (404) 892-2388
400 Colony Square
Atlanta, Georgia 30361-2401

HOUGHTON MIFFLIN/College Division
13400 Midway Road Telephone: (800) 588-8398
Dallas, Texas 75244-5165 (214) 980-1100

HOUSE OF TYROL
P. O. Box 909 Gateway Plaza Telephone: (404) 865-5115
Cleveland, Georgia 30528 (800) 443-1299

INICIATIVAS CULTURALES DE ESPAÑA, S.A.
Apartado de Correos 14.655
28080 Madrid
España/Spain

INTERNATIONAL FILM BUREAU, INC.
332 South Michigan Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60604-4382
Telephone: (312) 427-4545

INTERNATIONAL VIDEO NETWORK
2242 Camino Ramon
San Ramon, California 94583
Telephone: (415) 866-1121
(800) 443-0100
Ext. 561
Telex: 470242-PIER-UI

JEM COMMUNICATIONS, INC.
3619 Kennedy Road
P. O. Box 708
South Plainfield, New Jersey 07080
Telephone: (800) 338-4814

MUSEUM OF MODERN ART OF LATIN AMERICA
Organization of American States
1889 "F" St. N.W.
Wasington, D. C. 20006
Telephone: (202) 789-6021

NORTHEAST CONFERENCE MEDIA
P. O. Box 623
Middlebury, Vermont 05753
Telephone: (802) 388-4017

THE ROLAND COLLECTION
3120 Pawtucket Road
Northbrook, Illinois 60062
Telephone: (312) 291-2230

TAMARELLE'S INTERNATIONAL FILMS
110 Cohasset Stage Road
Chico, California 95926
Telephone: (916) 895-3429
(800) 356-3577

TEACHER'S DISCOVERY
1130 E. Big Beaver
Troy, Michigan 48033-1997
Telephone: (800) 521-3897
Michigan: (313) 689-9458

VID-DIMENSION, INC.
4221 W. Sierra Madre, Ste. 109
Fresno, California 93722
Telephone: (800) 233-0089
California: (800) 336-1005
or: (209) 276-6000

WIBLE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE, INC.
24 South 8th Street
P. O. Box 870
Allentown, Pennsylvania 18105

WORLD VIDEO
P. O. Box 30469 Telephone: (615) 691-9827
Knoxville, Tennessee 37930-0469

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Lonergan, Jack. *Video in Language Teaching*. New Directions in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge UP, 1984.

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